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ART. I. *Travels from Hamburgh through Westphalia and the Netherlands to Paris.* By Thomas Holcroft. 4to. 2 Vols. with Vignettes, and an imperial folio Atlas of Plates. 8l. 8s. Boards; (another Edition 5l. 5s.) R. Phillips. 1804.

TRAVELLING opens a wide field for reflection, since it presents, in rapid succession, various features of man, and affords opportunities of comparison which are not enjoyed by the stationary philosopher. The mind of the tourist is brought in contact (if we may so express ourselves) with a multitude of objects which impel him to inquiry, which relax his prejudices, and which tend to enlarge the sphere of his benevolence. Yet the view which he takes of the picture is not so extensive as he himself is apt to suppose; for at best his observations are circumscribed; and unless the imagination be restrained and tutored by a sound judgment, he will, with a fallacious rapidity, deduce general conclusions from particular facts. If he sees more than the person who stays at home, much still remains to be examined by him before the information of which he is in pursuit can be fully acquired; and his journals exhibit little more than the transit of an individual through the regions and the situations which he describes. When he hurries from place to place, his knowlege is merely that which is collected in public vehicles, at inns, and *by the way side*; and even when he becomes stationary, he has many things to learn, and many difficulties to surmount, before he obtains a thorough insight into the habits, manners, and character which discriminate the different classes of foreign society.

Much, however, depends on the mind and sagacity of the observer. Some individuals are gifted in sketching characters, in marking the traits which distinguish man from man, and in rendering current events productive of improving reflections. Such are the persons who should travel, and such is Mr. Holcroft. He is always alert, intelligent, and (we believe) conscientious. He strives to rise above the dominion of vulgar and obscuring prejudices, to paint with accuracy the scenes which presented

themselves to his observation, and to render his narrative morally impressive as well as amusing. The volumes before us may not improperly be called The Travels of Mr. Holcroft's mind; in which, resembling Mercier in his *Tableau de Paris*, he is easy without levity, keen without illiberality, rich in remark without redundancy, sensible without conceit, and philosophical without ostentation. His reflections, though tinctured with characteristic peculiarity, are never laboured, but made with a *coup de plume;* and his strictures, instead of being the result of ill-nature or of national partiality, appear to issue from a heart desirous of promoting the general welfare of mankind. The French nation is the chief object of his examination and study; and, as it is of great importance for us to be well acquainted with the character of this people, whether we are opposed to them in a hostile attitude, or cultivating with them the relations of peace and amity, we shall survey with interest the numerous sketches which are here given. 'The grand purpose of my journey, (says Mr. H.,) was to examine and to endeavour to understand a nation by which, during twelve years, the world has been held in astonishment.'

Of the temerity of the undertaking, the author is not unconscious; for he says that he entered Paris shrinking and trembling as he reflected on the vastness of the task which he had imposed on himself. Having, however, married a French lady, of the family of Mercier, and resolving to domesticate, in order to study the manners of the inhabitants, his field of observation was extended, and his difficulties were diminished.

As 'by habits, manners, and customs, the history of man is most clearly and emphatically written,' Mr. Holcroft has minutely attended to these circumstances; and he informs us that 'there is one feature in the present work, in which it differs from all other books of travels; a method and arrangement have been adopted, by which the influence of moral habits has been pourtrayed. This, whenever effectually done, will most powerfully contribute to the formation of an universal and permanent code of ethics. If it be my good fortune to set an example which shall hereafter be pursued with the penetration and efficacy worthy of a subject so prolific of moral instruction, I shall but have done that which the nature of the work suggested, though it will not be less real in its general and beneficial effects.'

An universal and permanent code of ethics! what an unspeakable blessing would it be to the world, could such a code be established! If a traveller would throw his mite into the treasury of universal morality, he must be a true cosmopolite, and not misrepresent the people of one country in order to make

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amusement for another, or to gratify his own illiberal feelings. It is in such a character that Mr. H. professes to write:

'I wish to ascertain and render evident national defects, that the nation of whom I speak may judge for themselves; and, by the repeated efforts of men who delineate them, be induced to correct them; also that other nations may avoid to imitate that which is injurious. Any attempt to vilify and degrade nations is base: but to awaken in them a sense of their mistakes is a worthy office. No man, alive to the consequences of national animosity, will seek to increase so pernicious a vice: there is in all nations much to dissapprove; but there is in all nations still much more to admire.' (p. 423.)

Speaking in another place in reference to his plan, he says;

'In writing the present work, I pursue a method which has not often been adopted, in books of travels. The form of a journal, the history of events indiscriminately as they pass, is almost inevitable, when it is the history of a transitory residence, a short stay at a great number of places; and such I was obliged to make mine, till my arrival at Paris. Here however my intention was to study the place, and the people; and here facts have accumulated, on a diversity of subjects, which inevitably class and arrange themselves under various heads. Had I continued the form of a journal, I should have given a collection of remarks which, valuable or not in themselves, could only have been desultory: and must often have distracted the attention, when they ought to have informed and filled the mind. I give this explanation, that the reader may at least know what I intend.'

Having thus endeavoured to delineate the sort of rambler to which the reader is now introduced, and prepared him for the journey announced in the title, we shall give some specimens of the entertainment and instruction which it presents. In the former part of this tour, Mr. Holcroft merely enjoys those means of rapid observation which are presented to every ordinary traveller. He journeys from place to place in common carriages, and has no time for diverging to the right hand or the left to collect materials; in consequence of which he is obliged, in a great measure, to confine himself to descriptions of the modes of travelling, of his companions in the public vehicles, of inns and inn-keepers, of the general aspect of countries, and of the principal objects in towns and cities. Being, however, a man of peculiar reflection, there is a novelty in all that he relates; and scenes, which would otherwise be insipid, are contemplated with pleasure, when viewed through the medium of his intellect and feeling.

Hamburgh, where Mr. H. had resided a year, is not left without a remark on friendship indicative of the man, and an useful hint (respecting lodgings) for the benefit of strangers. Hence he went to Altona, and during his voyage down the Elbe, he sketches the nature of the passage, and the character of the passengers.

In a German inn at Harburg, he politely introduces his wife and children to the reader; and he draws the groupe so much *to the life*, with all the circumstances of locality, that we cannot exhibit it without exciting the liveliest interest for this little family during a most uncomfortable journey:

'I am ambitious of travelling in good company: or, to speak without a figure, of fixing the attention of the reader of good sense, and good taste. Now, in order that we may go on pleasantly together, our feelings must sympathize: which they cannot do, unless we have various common points of contact.

'I do not admire that shivering sensibility which shrinks from, and repines at every touch of rude necessity. What age of the world ever more forcibly taught how necessary it is, for the poor wanderer, to steel himself to times and seasons? But, though we endure, let us know that we endure! The knowledge is wholesome; and, to the wounded spirit, the recollection is a balm. The truth is, I wish to bring the reader acquainted with those over whom every social and every affectionate tie had placed me, as a guardian.

'Here then is my Louisa, with an infant yet unseen, but not two months longer so to remain; and another on her knee: a sweet boy, five quarters old, whom neither her burthen, nor fatigue, no nor intreaty, could long induce her to commit even to a father's care: not because she had fears, but because she had affections.

'On one side of her was my daughter, our faithful Fanny; as gentle as she was courageous; and on the other myself. We occupied one of the wooden benches of the waggon: it was hard, and exposed to every inclemency. The public vehicles, on this road, are all in the same state: unless you bring one, a covered carriage is not to be had. Ours was the middle seat; and behind us, and before us, were gentlemen and ladies, old and young. These gentlemen and ladies, well wrapped up in woollens and provided with snaps *, laughed and ranted like a hundred hop-pickers; and, whenever their talkative jocularity ceased, broke forth into a general chorus of "*Ach, du lieber Augustin, Augustin, Augustin* †.

'Their mirth was not refined; but it tended to exhilarate: at least it excited attention; and gave a sort of employment to the mind. How should we have been pestered, heaven help us, if, instead of these hale companions, we had had my lady's woman, and my lord's valet!

'I do not however emulate that excess of philanthropy, which pretends to find every thing good, and admirable. One man will tell me, I have not seen the world, because I am not a member of his club; and another, because I never danced at the assembly to which he is a subscriber. To each of these, the club and the assembly are the *world.* For my own part, I have been so hustled, and tossed, and driven about, that the worlds, on which I have been thrown, are too various for memory to retain. Even the world of a *fahrende post* is

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'* Spiritous liquors.'

'† The chorus to a popular song.'

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far from being always the same: and to you, my gentle companions, it was totally a new world.

'It was the beginning of May, and about seven o'clock in the evening, when we set off. From Harburg to Bremen, at which city we intended to halt a few days, is only eleven miles.

"Oh! Then you were to be at your journey's end by nine that very evening."

'Ah, my dear madam, they were German miles; and the road, the postillion, and the *stuhl-wagen* were each of them German.

'We travelled all night, and all day, through a country so flat that no object was hidden; yet nothing could be seen, except cold and green nakedness; and arrived, with great difficulty, between nine and ten the next evening. I do not think these eleven German miles could measure less than seventy English: still however it appears strange that persons, who travel in a flying diligence, should be six or seven and twenty hours in going seventy miles. It is the fact. Had we gone two months earlier, it would have been much worse: we should not have slept in Bremen the second night.

'Louisa bore the journey with cheerfulness; wearied enough, 'tis true; but the shaking was little, compared to that which she had afterward to endure.

'Do not imagine that every where, as in England, you are driven to your inn door, step out, and immediately seat yourself by a pleasant fire; with a bell at your hand, and a ready waiter: who is clean, attentive, and expeditious, in hopes that he may excite your generosity. Fires, bells, and waiters, of this description, are seldom to be found in a German inn: and, further, we had the inn itself to seek.'

Fortunately, however, they were at last conducted to an inn called *The King of England*, kept by an honest Hibernian, where they found civility, a parlour fire, tolerable wine, and an excellent supper. Thus, as the calm follows the storm, so does enjoyment succeed to hardships.

When preparation is made for leaving Bremen, where the travellers rested four days, five *stuhl-wagens* are found necessary for the accommodation of passengers and baggage: but we will not detain the reader with a farther account of these miserable vehicles, dragging along through equally vile roads: rather presenting the author's reflections on quitting Germany and approaching Holland:

'Oh, what a cheering aspect have order and industry! As we approached the confines of the Dutch, the face of things began to change; and our hearts dilated with pleasure. Neat though small brick-built houses were here and there seen; with painted sashes, doors, and window shutters, green railing in front, and a garden behind. How consoling the thoughts, how endearing the recollections, that stole over us! We are many miles from Holland: yet the good example of its inhabitants is extending. We are still on the edge of vast moors; and those moors are beginning to smile. We meet with objects that even remind us of England; that dis-

tinguished country; which, with all its faults, affords the most useful, nay the grandest lessons of civilization, to the surrounding states.

'Though an Englishman, I hope I am not blind to foreign virtue: if so, I cannot be blind to the virtue I left at home. Every nation, and every man, is prejudiced: it is therefore the common duty of nations and of men to pardon, though not to affect ignorance of, the mistakes of habit and education. Few will deny that convenience is a good; and, whether it be habit or the inevitable nature of the thing, there are few who would not find themselves more conveniently placed, where they could obtain cleanliness, variety, and plenty, than where men. cows, and pigs, are under the same roof; and where the wants of these pigs are more attended to than those of the guest.'

From the German *stuhl-wagen*, we accompany Mr.H. and his family into a Dutch *trek schuit* for the purpose of visiting Holland. Here he makes good use of his time, but we cannot particularise the different objects which catch his attention. He could not behold that country in its present state, without lamenting the revolutionary depredation, of which it has been a prey. In Amsterdam, he observed that the people had not that air of serious activity which is common to great mercantile places:

'I inquired (says he) the reason; and this led to a mournful narrative of the present state of trade, the innumerable depredations committed by the conquerors of Holland, and the individual ruin, and general bad effects with which they were attended.

'I could but listen: I knew not how far political prejudice, or private loss, might influence the narrator. Yet he spoke like a true friend of freedom, appeared to possess excellent principles, and as far as I could judge, was only the enemy of those who, under the mask of freedom, had been guilty of the most odious rapine, and despotism.

'The subject is painful: the evils are committed; the good remains: let every wise man, whatever may be his opinions or his party, endeavour to render that which is good permanent; and, by mildness of speech and humanity in action, alleviate the bad, and prevent the return of misery.

'I left the house with pity for its owner, pity for the nation, and pity for all mankind. Is it not pitiable that it should still, at this hour, be the universal opinion that the sword is the weapon of wisdom? I say universal: for of what force are the few, who are convinced that it is the weapon of vice?'

Thus Mr. H. delivers his opinion on the effect of war on morals, when pursued as a system. The world, it is evident, cannot be enlightened and humanized by war; yet, while Ambition thirsts after universal dominion, and states preserve their independence merely by the power of self-defence, nations

will not listen to the mild sentiments of philosophy and religion.

Perhaps we ought not altogether to omit Mr. H.'s chapter on Amsterdam; we shall transcribe a part:

'This city boasts of no high antiquity: six hundred years ago, no traces of it were to be seen. Its square contents now consist of eighteen thousand seven hundred and ninety geometrical feet; and it is said to be larger than Haerlem, Leyden, Delft, Rotterdam, and Dordrecht, inclusively: though these are each of them large towns. So watery is its situation that it is built upon eighty-two islands: which communicate with each other by the aid of nearly three hundred bridges. This is what I read in the Amsterdam Guide: in a manuscript account, I have seen the number of bridges stated at four hundred. Either of the numbers sufficiently denote the nature of the soil.

'The streets are many of them uncommonly spacious: some, such as the Heerengragt, Keyzersgragt, and Prinssengragt, I am told are upward of a hundred and forty feet in width. They are equally remarkable for their cleanliness, and goodness of pavement. This last is chiefly of brick; because, as there is a canal that runs in the middle of each street, some few excepted, the heavy carriages are much fewer than in other cities; and the pavement less worn: every kind of merchandize and effects being usually transported by water.

'The estimate of the inhabitants is from two hundred and thirty to two hundred and fifty thousand. I ought to have noticed, as a mark of the order to which the Dutch are so wisely addicted, that the bridges are regularly numbered.

'To give statistical accounts is no part of the plan of this work: but that the mind should conceive such a city in such a place, rising in so short a space of time, among so many waters and marshes so muddy, possessed of population, wealth, and power so great, influencing and subduing regions so remote, and contending for superiority with the most potent nations, this, in the whole and in its parts, is a phenomenon that offers the most instructive facts, to the profoundest thinker.

'The traveller ought to be a conscientious man; and very careful not to mislead: I would not propagate an opinion that every thing in Holland is great and grand. The prudence and caution of the Dutch seem to have been forced upon them, by a multitude of concurring circumstances: but the qualities, which in some respects have rendered them so great, have also led them to other habits, that appear to be wholly opposite.

'Enter a Dutch inn, and you will see the landlady with her cap in small plaits, her keys numbered at her side, and a worked purse under her apron, with three partitions; for gold, silver, and small coins.

'She has two kitchens: one for use, and one for ornament. She wishes the latter only to be seen. Go into it, and you are surprised at the order, neatness, and cleanliness, of its contents. Cast your eye upward, and you smile at a row of chamber utensils, hanging over her clean dishes, bright copper pots, and unsoiled sauce pans. It is

a combination which could only have been made by a Dutch woman.

'Neatness, in Holland, is every where to be met with: but taste, I will not say no where, though certainly it is a very scarce quality. The people delight in trees cut into the shapes of animals; in traverse brick-work, the bricks accurately laid; in their doors and shutters, nay their churns and milk-pails, painted green; in Chinese awnings, hung with small bells; and in chimneys with weather-cocks, capped in the same taste. A Dutchman always wishes to know which way the wind blows: for he is often either miller, sailor, waterman or merchant.

'The passion, or rather the mania for tulips, appears as if it could only have originated where it did. The tulip is a flower of gaudy colours, but without scent: an object scarcely worthy the culture or the care of man: yet the price that has been given for a tulip-root has been sometimes as great as that which a proud man must pay for a coach; and more than sufficient to build the poor man a cottage, and buy him a garden.'

Mr. H. visits Rotterdam, where he finds reason to believe that poverty and filth are not entirely banished from Holland, is offended at seeing the temple of Cloacina in the kitchen, and hence takes occasion to praise the cleanliness and cookery of England: but if the Dutch were to turn travellers, they would occasionally discover Cloacina as much out of her place as she is at Rotterdam. At the Hague, where, after some difficulty, he obtained his passport to Paris from the French minister, he visited *the House in the Wood;* and his sentiments on this occasion constitute an elegy in prose, with the author's thoughts on the subject of Reform appended.

'I left the croud and walked into the wood. I wished for meditation; and here it was inspired, with painful abundance. He, who should not heave many a mournful sigh, to recollect what grandeur suffers when it falls, must surely be but a sorry travelling companion. In this wood, the palace of the Stadtholder is built. Along these spacious roads, how many sumptuous equipages have passed; how many princes of the earth have hurried; how many pleasures have rolled! The dancer and the deep politician have met: each busied in his golden dreams; each inflated with his own importance. The king of Prussia, Voltaire, and Vestris, said the latter, are the three wonders of the age!

'I have touched upon a false chord. Human weakness is indeed the theme; but it is rather elegy than satire: it is impassioned and full of plaintive ejaculations. "By the waters of Babylon we sat down and wept." How true, and therefore how beautiful was the thought.

'I pursued my road. At proper distances, boards were nailed upon posts; which had probably contained directions, and regulations, for the preservation of the premises. They were open to the public; and long had been a favourite place of resort. The inscriptions on these boards were now effaced.

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'It was near an hour, for my walk was slow, pensive, and full of pause, before I arrived at the chateau. Where were the lordly owners of the mansion? They were gone; fugitives in a foreign land; and it was become a coffee-house, or a tavern, or I know not what. I know the world needs improvement. I know that innovation, change, is inevitable: I am what I have been, an unshaken advocate for reform. But reform must be gradual, innovation tempered with mildness, and the people to be improved must consent to and aid in their own amelioration; or the whole fabric is of sand, which the returning tide will level.'

Antwerp was among the places in the Netherlands which Mr. Holcroft visited; and if the view of the Scheldt does not excite so bold an apostrophe as that which once proceeded from Mr. Burke, he is equally animated in his own way:

'Is there a man on earth who does not feel amazement, contempt, and horror, when he reads of Nero setting fire to the city of Rome? Is there a man on earth who will affirm, that the wickedness of setting fire to the city of Rome, in any degree, equals the wickedness of damming up a navigable river? In one case, the loss, however great, will be quickly repaired by time: in the other, the injury must be eternal; unless the injustice be redressed. Had it the power, the spirit of avarice, which dammed up the Scheldt, would dry up the sources of nature; or turn them into that narrow channel where their effects would be desolation, and destruction *. Can this avarice find pretexts and put motives in action for the continuance of such an outrage? Will virtue and common sense consent to its further existence? Time must determine; for things so incredible have happened that nothing is too incredible to be supposed.'

We must pass over that part of the journal which includes Malines, Tournay, &c. in order to afford space for the observations on the general aspect of things, as the traveller enters the territory which had long appertained to France. Though Mr. H. does not resemble Candide in thinking that every thing which happens is for the best, he has pleasure in tracing out the good, and turns with satisfaction from the dark to the bright side of a picture:

'Two things to the advantage of the present moment I can speak of, without any doubt or fear of misleading: the peasants are now better clothed, in general, than they were; and their looks I will not say are more merry but rather more sedate, yet more truly chearful. There still are many beggars among them: but the numbers now are not so great. If the large and spreading picture of poverty, I may say of wretchedness, be not exceedingly lessened, I am exceedingly

'* Since this was written, I have been assured by a merchant of Anwerp that the supposed damming up of the Scheldt is a popular error. It is a question I have not leisure to examine; though I have little doubt there is some foundation for the report. In any case, the reflexions are equally just.'

deceived. The last day of our journey was Sunday; and we saw too many of the people, both old and young, cleanly in their dress and with satisfaction in their faces, for these signs of ease and better days to be mistaken. The rags, the poverty, the harassed looks, the livid tints, the pictures of misery, I had formerly seen, cannot be forgotten.

'There are men so misled by the impatience of hope, which magnifies one object and is blind to another, that they assert the change that has taken place is entire. A thousand miracles scarcely could so soon have produced such an entire change. A nation is a vast body; which, though it cannot stand still, is imperceptible in its motion: except at the moment of some violent impulse, from which it soon subsides into slow and unseen progression. Its customs are ancient, its habits inveterate, its modes of acting and of thinking were supposed by itself to be the best that human wisdom could devise. Such is the supposition to a certain degree of every man in every individual thing he does; or he would do otherwise. A nation is but an aggregate of men: and, however some may disapprove or censure the manners, general or particular, of others, each man being convinced of the goodness of his own, the nation, in the strictest sense of the word, is for that reason so convinced. Few have the sagacity to doubt of themselves. He who has that sagacity doubts but little. Where is the power that shall immediately induce a whole nation, that is, each individual of which a nation is formed, so to doubt as to detect the general and the individual mistakes? The French peasants have been relieved from the tyranny of feudal institutions, and are placed under new circumstances; and these circumstances must be productive of adequate changes. No man can pretend to discover them at the very moment, and in the very manner, in which they take place: but is it possible for any man to doubt that they are inevitable?

'There are peasants who affirm they were happier under their former masters: they make even bitter complaints, and feel deep and unfeigned regret. He knows but little of the human heart, who shall adduce this as a proof that the peasants are now actually more wretched. Scarcely the wisest man has the wisdom so to recollect himself as to be satisfied with the present. There are but few scenes, in past life, so marked by misfortune or pain as not, when remembered, to excite regret that they are gone, never to return. In such a town, in such a country, among such and such friends, how pleasantly says memory the days were passed. Faithless historian! Deceitful varnisher! How dismal and dirty was the town; how solitary and bleak the country; how dull, how insipid, how fatiguing were the friends! An old woman laments the days of her youth; an old man the days of yore.'

Arrived at Paris, Mr. H. becomes a more domesticated observer, and we may now consider him as standing on the theatre of attentive research, prepared to examine and to mark whatever may tend to illustrate the French national character. To assist in its perfect developement, he compares the past with the present, avails himself of the strictures of French writers, swells

swells his pages, (perhaps indiscreetly, in some instances,) with quotations and well-known anecdotes, and disserts on trivial circumstances. Before, however, the reader is invited to accompany him in his detailed survey, he endeavours to possess him with an idea of that magnificent view of the French metropolis, with which the eye is struck on entering it by the barrier of Chaillot; though the brilliant effect, which this landscape cannot fail to produce on the thoughtless gazer, is here considerably diminished by the dark moral tint which this speculatist has thrown over the whole.

'If a man should enter this metropolis coming from Versailles, or St. Germain en laye, how great would be his astonishment at this first view of its magnificence. By a spacious road, between a continued double avenue of stately trees. he arrives at the barrier of Chaillot. It is but a toll gate; where cattle and provisions, arriving from that side of the country, are taxed; yet it is a superb building, with massy pillars.

'From this eminence, the grandeur of the view cannot be described; it can only be imagined. The objects of which it is formed are individually, perhaps, liable to much censure; yet they form a very extraordinary whole. It is one scene of a vast expanse of foliage, formed by the innumerable and majestic trees of the Elysian fields and the gardens of the Tuilleries, intermingled with palaces, the bridges and the waters of the Seine, and completed by the city itself, in perspective, and the lofty towers, spires and domes, by which it is overlooked.

'The man that should desire to enjoy a fine dream, a beatic vision of Paris, should come to this height, and look before him for half an hour; then descend through the gardens of the Tuilleries, and, having seen the *façade* of the palace, return without proceeding one step further. It would be food for imagination, remembrance, and regret, through life: he would everlastingly proclaim Paris the most astonishing of cities, the most splendid of the works of man, and undoubtedly the metropolis of the world.

'I once had a sensation, while contemplating this part of it, which I shall never forget. It was in the year 1783: I was standing in *la Place de Louis XV.* near the equestrian statue from which it then took its name; the palace and gardens of the Tuilleries were on my back; on the right was the newly erected magnificent pile called *le Garde des Meubles du Roi* (now the Admiralty), with the widest street in the city, terminated by the numerous columns of *la Madeleine*; on the left were the river and the *Palais Bourbon*, with the distant dome of the Invalides; and in front the Elysian Fields, with the grand vista and superb iron gates which then adorned the brow of the hill. Viewing it where I now stand, exclaimed I in ecstacy, it is the city of the Gods! Instantly recollecting myself, I looked at the people, who stood gazing at me while I was in this trance: they were in rags, many without shoes or stockings, and most or all with sallow famine in their looks. The very blood and marrow, said I, of these and their fellow-wretches, have been wrought up into mortar for the

the palaces that excite this admiration. Would they had never been!

'It was a cruel thought; and such thoughts have had cruel consequences: yet there is so much justice in them, and they call so loudly for the serious attention of every class of men, that they ought never to be suppressed; though they ought most carefully to be so delivered as to produce good, and not evil.'

The author notices the street inscriptions, and the remarkable whims and ignorance which they display, the posting-bills, which he divides into four classes, the tricks of quacks, exhibitions, coffee-houses, public gardens and places of amusement, national festivals, &c. &c. In describing the present application of the *Palais Royal*, he delivers himself with virtuous indignation, and reprobates the Government which derives a revenue from the licence of the grossest crimes:

'Feelings which are painful become indignant and almost tormenting, when it is further known that such places are not merely suffered, because government is too indolent, too busy, or too weak to repress them; but because government is bribed: because government divides the wages of vice the earnings of prostitution, the industry of cheating, and the spoils of the ruined. Oh, it is infamous! It is damnable! I care not what man, or what set of men, on the face of the earth, may take offence: it is indignation I never will repress, never will conceal. There is not a father, if he be not a monster, there is not a single friend to man, by whom this indignation is not felt. If the honest in thought would but be honest in speech, vice would not dare thus openly to brave the world; and that government that should licence it would crumble to dust.'

Well might Mr. Holcroft be surprised at the extravagant praise which has been lavished on this sink of vice; and well may he ask the author of "*Varieties of Literature*," whether this be the place which "no station, no age, no sex, no temper, could ever leave without an ardent desire to return?"

The national *fêtes* of the French appear to be extremely childish and irrational, and Mr. H. congratulates the English that they have no such festivals. He is persuaded that the object of the Government in their celebration is not to promote the love and practice of freedom, but merely to amuse a frivolous people, who, like the citizens of vitiated Rome, looked for nothing more than *Panem et Circenses*.

From the account here given of the annual exhibition of the inventions and manufactures of France, it is evident that our enemies have much to accomplish before they can rival us in trade. The exhibition at the Louvre, which was so pompously detailed in the public prints, was, according to Mr. H.—"a beggarly account of empty boxes."

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In the chapter on the festival of the 18th of Brumaire, subsequent to the peace, the traveller adverts to the "Proclamation of the Consuls of the Republic to the French;" and he comments on its first paragraph, which ought to have shewn us the hostile purpose which lurked in the breast of Bonaparte, when he looked towards us "with hollow smiles proclaiming treacherous peace."

'In the first paragraph of this proclamation the French are told, in terms too plain to be misunderstood, that the government had not yielded to the ambitious temptation to conquer England The words "daring and extraordinary enterprize" could have no other allusion. That ambition, which every man ought to regard with detestation and horror, is qualified as extraordinary. A thing no less extraordinary, than even such a rash, wicked, and inevitably abortive attempt must have been, was that every Frenchman, with whom I conversed, made not the least doubt but that France could with the utmost ease invade and conquer England. I hope to find an opportunity of shewing that there are few subjects in which the proofs, from moral and physical causes, are more unanswerable, more self-evident, more secure, than those which demonstrate that any such attempt must end in the destruction of the invaders, and the eternal dishonour of those who should send them to destruction.

'How much grander, and in what a different spirit, was the idea of uniting the one great European family, to guide and govern the earth! Not to govern by the sword, but by the powers of mind, by the introduction of knowledge, and all the arts of increasing civilization.'

The grown-up children of Paris are examined by this English Mercier in all their scenes of frivolity and mean parade; and he gives some ludicrous instances of the affectation of science which is displayed in the conversation even of fiddlers and shoe-blacks, and of the extravagant puffs of mountebanks and fortune-tellers. To the ignorance of the Parisians he attributes their indolence, and that habit of trifling which extends not only to things in themselves trifling, but through the whole economy of life. The institution of convents and monasteries is regarded as one great source of this evil among the common people. By tribes of monks were created tribes of idlers; and the charities, so ostentatiously doled out at the convent-gate, were in effect the bane of the poor; for they engendered sloth, which is a most fatal disease to a state. Though Mr. Holcroft still observes a strong disposition to pleasure, he is inclined to believe that 'the French are becoming less indolent; that the idlers are not so numerous, and that beggary of appearance is diminishing.' Still, he perceives a want of energy in the French character; and he feels himself urged not by any narrow sentiment, but by a regard to truth,

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to state this indubitable fact, 'that in those arts which are most useful, in those manners which are most rational, and in that public government, and private order, that political and individual economy, which can best secure happiness, the French are unfortunately far behind the English. Could I speak this in triumph I should despise myself.'

We are now forced to take leave of this moral and amusing writer: but we purpose to make him the subject of another article, in which we can safely promise our readers farther entertainment.

[*To be continued.*] **Mo-y.**

ART. II. *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border:* consisting of Historical and Romantic Ballads, collected in the southern Counties of Scotland; with a few of modern Date, founded upon local Tradition. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 420. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees.

AGREEABLY to the plan of the two preceding volumes of this work, which we noticed at some length *, the contents of the present are classed under the titles *Historical Ballads*, *Romantic Ballads*, and *Imitations*. The distinction between the two former is not very regularly preserved, and the latter, though pretty poems, are very unlike their prototypes.

The historical series commences with *Auld Maitland*, a traditionary song, which was rapidly passing into oblivion on the banks of the Ettrick. It is now published for the first time, from the recital of an old woman. The editor conjectures that it may have been composed about the time of David II.; though he does not deny that the language has been considerably modernized. The occurrence of a few obsolete military terms is no very certain proof of high antiquity: but it satisfies Mr. Scott, who favours us, in course, with his usual liberality of editorial annotations.

The closing paragraph of the preliminary remarks is worthy of transcription:

'It is a curious circumstance, that this interesting tale, so often referred to by ancient authors, should be now recovered in so perfect a state; and many readers may be pleased to see the following sensible observations, made by a person, born in Ettrick Forest, in the humble situation of a shepherd. "I am surprised to hear that this song is suspected by some to be a modern forgery: the contrary will be best proved, by most of the old people, hereabouts, having a great part of it by heart. Many, indeed, are not aware of the manners of this country; till this present age, the poor illiterate

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* See M. R. Vol. xlii. p. 21.

people,

people, in these glens, knew of no other entertainment, in the long winter nights, than repeating, and listening to, the feats of their ancestors, recorded in songs, which I believe to be handed down, from father to son, for many generations; although, no doubt, had a copy been taken, at the end of every fifty years, there must have been some difference, occasioned by the gradual change of language. I believe it is thus that many very ancient songs have been gradually modernized, to the common ear; while, to the connoisseur, they present marks of their genuine antiquity."—*Letter to the editor from Mr. James Hogg.* To the observations of my ingenious correspondent I have nothing to add, but that, in this, and a thousand other instances, they accurately coincide with my personal knowledge.'

This observation is ingenious, and highly creditable to the pen of a shepherd: yet, in our attempts to fix the dates of compositions which lay claim to antiquity, we should not rashly and extensively adopt its application, unless we are anxious to cut off one of the principal sources of internal evidence. It is difficult to reconcile the action of this little poem with real history, or its language with that of a remote period. Perhaps it has been patched and softened into its present form, from some more rude and disjointed materials.

Sir Hugh le Blond, also taken down from the recitation of an old woman, breathes somewhat of the spirit of chivalrous romance. A diction rather tame than antiquated, and the mention of a clock and a black velvet chair, are not symptomatic of a very early period.

The popular ballad, intitled *Sir Patrick Spens*, is here republished with more enlargement than emendation. The cork-heeled shoes of the Scottish lords, the web of silk, and the ladies' fans and golden combs, rather bespeak ideas of modern refinement, than the state of society in Scotland in the 13th century. After the vessel had sprung her topmasts, and the sea was making breaches over her, the knight, or his pilot, very deliberately resolves to *get up to the tall top-mast, to spy land*; an incongruity which does not occur in some of the former editions. The substitution of *Aberdeen* for *Aberdour* is at least unnecessary. The common and perhaps the correct reading is

'Mair than half owr to Aberdour,'

which may simply imply that the shipwreck took place when Sir Patrick and his attendants had accomplished more than half of their voyage back to Aberdour. The anxious waiting of the ladies for their lords is well conceived. The same idea is expressed by the author of Douglas, and in his happiest manner:

'Ye

"Ye dames of Denmark! even for you I feel,
Who sadly sitting on the sea-beat shore,
Long look for lords that never shall return."

The Dowie Dens of Yarrow, now first published, is avowedly selected from a variety of copies, with the accommodating intention of suiting 'these more light and giddy-paced times.' Thus concocted, it possesses considerable softness, blended with tragical effect. We quote a few stanzas.

'She kissed his cheek, she kaimed his hair,
She searched his wounds all thorough;
She kissed them till her lips grew red,
On the dowie houms of Yarrow.

"Now, haud your tongue, my daughter dear,
For a' this breeds but sorrow;
I'll wed ye to a better lord,
Than him ye lost on Yarrow."

"O haud your tongue, my father dear!
Ye mind me but of sorrow;
A fairer rose did never bloom
Than now lies cropped on Yarrow."

The Lament of the Border Widow, a fragment preserved by recitation, deserves to be noted on account of its simple tenderness:

'My love he built me a bonny bower,
And clad it a' wi' lilye flour;
A brawer bower ye ne'er did see,
Than my true love he built for me.

'There came a man, by middle day,
He spied his sport, and went away;
And brought the king, that very night,
Who brake my bower, and slew my knight.

'He slew my knight, to me sae dear;
He slew my knight, and poin'd * his gear;
My servants all for life did flee,
And left me in extremitie.

'I sew'd his sheet, making my mane;
I watched the corpse, myself alane;
I watched his body, night and day;
No living creature came that way.

'I took his body on my back,
And whiles I gaed, and whiles I sate;
I digg'd a grave, and laid him in,
And happ'd him with the sod sae green.

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* *Poin'd*—Poinded, attached by legal distress.

'But

'But think na ye my heart was sair,
When I laid the moul' on his yellow hair?
O think na ye my heart was wae,
When I turn'd about, away to gae?

'Nae living man I'll love again,
Since that my lovely knight is slain;
Wi' ae lock of his yellow hair,
I'll chain my heart for evermair.'

Hughie the Græme was scarcely worthy of republication.

The poem of *Græme and Bewick* probably contains 'the very latest allusion to the institution of brotherhood in arms, which was held so sacred in the days of chivalry.' We may add that, though mutilated, it possesses some merit as a pathetic ballad.

We are duly cautioned against receiving the tale of William Armstrong, usually called *Christie's Will*, as a piece of genuine and unmixed antiquity: but we pardon its insertion on account of the interesting notes with which it is accompanied. From these we relate the following incident:

'Some time afterwards, a law-suit, of importance to lord Traquair, was to be decided in the court of session; and there was every reason to believe, that the judgment would turn upon the voice of the presiding judge, who has a casting vote, in case of an equal division among his brethren. The opinion of the president was unfavourable to lord Traquair; and the point was, therefore, to keep him out of the way, when the question should be tried. In this dilemma, the earl had recourse to Christie's Will; who, at once, offered his service, to kidnap the president. Upon due scrutiny, he found it was the judge's practice frequently to take the air, on horseback, on the sands of Leith, without an attendant. In one of these excursions, Christie's Will, who had long watched his opportunity, ventured to accost the president, and engage him in conversation. His address and language were so amusing, that he decoyed the president into an unfrequented and furzy common, called the Frigate Whins, where, riding suddenly up to him, he pulled him from his horse, muffled him in a large cloak, which he had provided, and rode off, with the luckless judge trussed up behind him. Will crossed the country with great expedition, by paths only known to persons of his description, and deposited his weary and terrified burden in an old castle, in Annandale, called the Tower of Graham *. The judge's horse being found, it was concluded he had thrown his rider into the sea; his friends went into mourning, and a successor was appointed to his office. Meanwhile, the poor president spent a heavy time in the vault of the castle. He was imprisoned and solitary; receiving his food through an aperture in the wall, and never hearing the sound of a human voice, save when a shepherd called his dog, by the name of *Batty*, and when a female domestic called upon *Maudge*, the cat. These, he concluded, were invocations of spirits; for he held himself

'* It stands upon the water of Dryfe, not far from Moffat.'

to be in the dungeon of a sorcerer. At length, after three months had elapsed, the law-suit was decided in favour of lord Traquair; and Will was directed to set the president at liberty. Accordingly, he entered the vault, at dead of night, seized the president, muffled him once more in the cloak, without speaking a single word, and, using the same mode of transportation, conveyed him to Leith sands, and set down the astonished judge on the very spot where he had taken him up. The joy of his friends, and the less agreeable surprize of his successor, may be easily conceived, when he appeared in court, to reclaim his office and honours. All embraced his own persuasion, that he had been spirited away by witchcraft; nor could he himself be convinced of the contrary, until, many years afterwards, happening to travel in Annandale, his ears were saluted, once more, with the sounds of *Maudge* and *Batty*—the only notes which had solaced his long confinement. This led to a discovery of the whole story; but, in these disorderly times, it was only laughed at, as a fair *ruse de guerre*.

'Wild and strange as this tradition may seem, there is little doubt of its foundation in fact. The judge, upon whose person this extraordinary stratagem was practised, was sir Alexander Gibson, lord Durie, collector of the reports, well known in the Scottish law, under the title of *Durie's Decisions*. He was advanced to the station of an ordinary lord of session, 10th July, 1621, and died, at his own house of Durie, July 1646. Betwixt these periods his whimsical adventure must have happened; a date which corresponds with that of the tradition.'

The Duel of Wharton and Stewart, and the party ballads which relate to the contentions of the covenanters, appear to be misplaced in a collection of Border Minstrelsy: but they serve the purpose of introducing no trifling portion of historical detail. Instead of accompanying the learned editor in this extraneous walk, we shall confine ourselves to two short anecdotes which are not generally known.

'So little was the spirit of illiberal fanaticism decayed in some parts of Scotland, that only thirty years ago, when Wilson, the ingenious author of a poem, called *Clyde*, now republished, was inducted into the office of schoolmaster, at Greenock, he was obliged formally, and in writing, to abjure "*the profane and unprofitable art of poem-making.*" It is proper to add, that such an incident is *now* as unlikely to happen in Greenock as in London.'—

'The following tradition, concerning Cromwell, is preserved by an uncommonly direct line of traditional evidence; being narrated (as I am informed) by the grandson of an eye-witness. When Cromwell, in 1650, entered Glasgow, he attended divine service in the high church; but the presbyterian divine, who officiated, poured forth, with more zeal than prudence, the vial of his indignation upon the person, principles, and cause, of the independent general. One of Cromwell's officers rose, and whispered his commander; who seemed to give him a short and stern answer, and the sermon was concluded without

without interruption. Among the crowd, who were assembled to gaze at the general, as he came out of the church, was a shoemaker, the son of one of James the sixth's Scottish footmen. This man had been born and bred in England, but, after his father's death, had settled in Glasgow. Cromwell eyed him among the crowd, and immediately called him by his name—the man fled; but at Cromwell's command, one of his retinue followed him, and brought him to the general's lodgings. A number of the inhabitants remained at the door, waiting the end of this extraordinary scene. The shoemaker soon came out, in high spirits, and, shewing some gold, declared, he was going to drink Cromwell's health. Many attended him to hear the particulars of his interview; among others the grandfather of the narrator. The shoemaker said, that he had been a playfellow of Cromwell; when they were both boys, their parents residing in the same street; that he had fled, when the general first called to him, thinking he might owe him some ill-will, on account of his father being in the service of the royal family. He added, that Cromwell had been so very kind and familiar with him, that he ventured to ask him, what the officer had said to him in the church. "He proposed," said Cromwell, "to pull forth the minister by the ears; and I answered, that the preacher was one fool, and he another." In the course of the day, Cromwell held an interview with the minister, and contrived to satisfy his scruples so effectually, that the evening discourse, by the same man, was tuned to the praise and glory of the victor of Naseby.'

Several of the romantic ballads will scarcely reward the trouble of perusal. *Erlinton* will not be endured by him who can relish the *Child of Elle*. *The Douglas Tragedy* was already popular; though it must be allowed that Mr. Scott has pruned some of its most uncouth extravagancies. *Young Benjie* and *Lady Ann* are more inviting specimens of the Scottish romantic song. The concluding stanza of *Proud Lady Margaret* reminds us of Bürgher:

> 'For the wee worms are my bed fellows,
> And cauld clay is my sheets;
> And when the stormy winds do blow,
> My body lies and sleeps.'

Lord Randal is distinguished from the other pieces by a lengthened, yet animated measure. 'There is (says Mr. Scott) a beautiful air to this old ballad. The hero is more generally termed *Lord Ronald;* but I willingly follow the authority of an Ettrick Forest copy, for calling him *Randal;* because, though the circumstances are so very different, I think it not impossible, that the ballad may have originally regarded the death of Thomas Randolph, or Randal, earl of Murray, nephew to Robert Bruce, and governor of Scotland.'

We have already hinted that the Imitations of the antient ballad are improperly so called. With one or two exceptions, they indicate genius, fancy, and poetic expression: but they are destitute of the rude negligence, of the simple pathos, and of the abrupt transitions of thought, which characterize the elder lays of the Caledonian Muse. Without the preface, Mr. Leyden's *Mermaid*, though composed in pretty stanzas, would be unintelligible. The style is likewise too fine and *recherché*, and not wholly free from an affectation of quaintness: but the subsequent stanzas are graceful and soothing:

" Softly blow, thou western breeze,
Softly rustle through the sail,
Soothe to rest the furrowy seas,
Before my love, sweet western gale!

" Where the wave is tinged with red,
And the russet sea-leaves grow,
Mariners, with prudent dread,
Shun the shelving reefs below.

" As you pass thro' Jura's sound,
Bend your course by Scarba's shore,
Shun, O shun, the gulf profound,
Where Corrivrekin's surges roar!

" If, from that unbottomed deep,
With wrinkled form and writhed train,
O'er the verge of Scarba's steep,
The sea-snake heave his snowy mane,

" Unwarp, unwind his oozy coils,
Sea-green sisters of the main,
And in the gulf, where ocean boils,
The unwieldy wallowing monster chain.

" Softly blow, thou western breeze,
Softly rustle through the sail,
Soothe to rest the furrowed seas,
Before my love, sweet western gale!"

' Thus, all to soothe the chieftain's woe,
Far from the maid he loved so dear,
The song arose, so soft and slow,
He seemed her parting sigh to hear.

' The lonely deck he paces o'er,
Impatient for the rising day,
And still, from Crinan's moonlight shore.
He turns his eyes to Colonsay.'

In the next line, we are told that the ' moonbeams *crisp* the curling surge.

Mr.

Mr. Sharpe, of Hoddom, approaches much nearer to the spirit of the old provincial lays of the Border. His contributions are intitled, *The Lord Herries his Complaint*, and the murder of *Caerlaverock*. One of his stanzas is worthy of Burns:

'I plunged an auld man in the sea,
Whase locks were like the snaw;
His hairs sall serve for rapes to me,
In hell my saul to draw.'

Mr. Lewis's *Sir Agilthorn* is a pleasing effusion, but can never be mistaken for an old ballad. His description of the happiness and contentment of a village damsel appears to have been borrowed from a well-known passage in Guarini's *Pastor Fido*.

Miss Seward has oddly blended English and Scottish phraseology in *Rich Auld Willie's Farewell*.

Dr. Jamieson's *Water Kelpie* will please adepts, more than poets or general readers.

The last of these imitations, which our limits permit us to notice, is *Cadyow Castle*. No author's name is subjoined: but, if we rightly conjecture, it is the production of the editor; and if so, it intitles him to rank high as a composer of romantic poetry. We can select only a few stanzas:

'He ceased—and cries of rage and grief
Burst mingling from the kindred band,
And half arose the kindling chief,
And half unsheath'd his Arran brand.

'But who, o'er bush, o'er stream and rock,
Rides headlong, with resistless speed,
Whose bloody poniard's frantic stroke
Drives to the leap his jaded steed;

'Whose cheek is pale, whose eye-balls glare,
As one, some visioned sight that saw,
Whose hands are bloody, loose his hair?—
—'Tis he! 'tis he! 'tis Bothwellhaugh.

'From gory selle *, and reeling steed,
Sprung the fierce horseman with a bound,
And, reeking from the recent deed,
He dashed his carbine on the ground.

'Sternly he spoke—" 'Tis sweet to hear
In good green-wood the bugle blown,
But sweeter to Revenge's ear,
To *drink* a tyrant's dying *groan*.'

'* *Selle*—Saddle. A word used by Spenser, and other antient authors.'

On the whole, while we much applaud Mr. Scott's diligence, learning, and taste, we cannot help repeating that he has unnecessarily extended his work; and that, while he treats us with some beautiful flowers, he mixes with them thorns and noisome weeds.

Muir.

ART. III. *The History of the Reign of George III. to the Termination of the late War.* To which is prefixed a View of the progressive Improvement of England, in Prosperity and Strength, to the Accession of his Majesty. By Robert Bisset, LL.D. Author of the "Life of Burke *," &c. 6 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

HISTORIANS have sometimes been divided into two classes, the philosophical and the rhetorical: but perhaps we should not decidedly rank the author of these volumes under either. There is another class, however, not mentioned in the list of technical writers, but which certainly exists; and in this we should be more inclined to place him; viz. that of the prudent historians. It happens to be the business of the earliest of these annals to narrate councils which were not the most wise, and to state measures which were far indeed from beneficial; and though Dr. Bisset does not shrink from this painful task, though both the councils and the measures are fairly set forth, and their mischiefs are not dissembled, yet, when we behold a course pursued that is unfriendly to liberty and is fatal to the interests of the nation, when human life is sacrificed and incalculable treasures are squandered away, when the country sinks in consideration, when America is lost, and when France is aggrandized, the mind looks for the authors of these misfortunes, and it looks in vain in the records now before us. The cotemporary members of the cabinet are represented as able, faithful, and loyal; one is a patriot and a sage; another is a profound practical statesman; a third is only anxious to preserve the constitution inviolate; and in one or two only is some alloy gently intimated. On the other hand, if the ministers are all thus wise and virtuous, equal if not higher merit is liberally ascribed to their opponents. All this is good humoured; it has moreover the semblance of impartiality; and we should certainly be the last to complain of it, if we could forget that it belongs to the department of history to chastise injustice, to reprehend presumption, to expose folly, and to pour down a due though it be a tardy retribution on the heads of those who, assuming great and awful trusts, are either

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* See Rev. N. S. Vols. xxvi. p. 361. and xxvii. p. 23.

unequal

unequal to or betray them. It is peculiarly the duty and province of the historian to exclaim

"*Cuncti adsint, meritæque expectent præmia palmæ.*"

Whether it be that this writer differs from the moral critics who thus delineate the office of the historian, or that from policy he disregards their authority, certain it is that he does not conform to it.

While, however, Dr. Bisset shews this favour to incompetent and unsuccessful ministers, he does not undervalue any of the great rights and important privileges of which Britons ought ever to be jealous, but is the avowed and firm, though temperate, advocate of our liberties. His observations on constitutional questions are usually just, as well as ingenious; and if we meet with some of which we do not approve, they are few compared with those which call forth our commendation. As far as facts are concerned, we cannot impute it to him that he sacrifices the truth, or degrades the dignity of history; and if representations and apologies are occasionally made in a spirit which we cannot praise, the faithful narrative which accompanies them will prevent their having any ill effect, at least on persons of mature judgment. On the whole, then, the impression left on the mind is favourable to those principles to which we have been indebted for all that has hitherto distinguished us; and the work, though not free from many faults, and several great defects, is perhaps the least exceptionable of the histories of the same period. There may be too much justice in the Dr.'s severe observation on his predecessors, that 'they are rather repeaters of party notions and reports, than original composers of authentic history:' but it cannot be denied that they have much assisted and shortened his labours; and we ought to add that, by paying more attention to one of them, he might have rendered his own publication considerably more complete than it now is.

With regard to style, we could have wished that Dr. B. had discovered more solicitude to attain correctness and simplicity; that his terms had been as appropriate as his meaning in general is just; that his page had presented fewer inexcusable negligences and unwarrantable licences, and less numerous marks of that undue haste and imperfect revision which characterize too many modern performances. In a work so important, which will fall chiefly into the hands of youth, both duty to the public and the suggestions of self-interest should have urged the author to have rendered his composition as faultless as it was within his utmost endeavours to effect.

The introduction shews that the Dr. has deeply studied the annals of his country; the events and characters of which, for the most part, he ably and justly appreciates. As preliminary to the history of the present reign, he very properly gives rather a minute account of the concluding part of that which preceded it. The administrative revolution, stated in the following passage, forms an æra so important in our records, that we are induced to submit to our readers the account of it here given:

'Ministerial influence in this reign, whether from the long continuance of parliament, or other causes, became much greater than at any former time. Corruption had been carried to a considerable length by the whigs, in the time of queen Anne, on particular occasions: but it was reserved for Walpole to establish it as a methodical and regular engine of government; and to bribe in a dextrous and circuitous manner, which might not only escape detection, but in some degree even impose on the receiver, and which might make him suppose that to be the reward of merit from his country, which was really the wages of service to a minister. Closely connected with stock-jobbers, and other adventurers, in projects for the acquisition of money, Walpole found, through loans and similar government transactions, various opportunities of bestowing indirect donatives. Nor was he sparing in direct presents. He appears to have been the first minister who thoroughly understood the mode of managing parliaments, and making law givers willing tools in the hands of the court. He first completely succeeded in identifying, according to the apprehension of the majority, compliance with ministers, and patriotism: opposition to ministers, and dissaffection to the constitution. George's reign is an epoch in parliamentary history, as, since that time, whether ministers have been able or weak, wise or foolish, they have rarely failed to have the co-operation of parliament in their projects, whether useful or hurtful. The influence of the crown was established on the most solid basis by the whig party, and the whig leader, sir Robert Walpole.'

As we have before hinted, the author fairly states the acts and maxims of the early part of this reign: but he gives them a colour which all persons will not admit to be that which exactly belongs to them. Actions and measures which some have attributed to favouritism, and have considered as indicative of high notions of power, he describes as proceeding from a laudable departure from old systems of political exclusion, and from the practice of confining administrations to a party. It is not a little curious that this salvo is first introduced in order to be applied to those arrangements, and the effects of them, which occasioned the resignation of William Pitt the elder. It is well known that this Minister himself never acted on the exclusive system, and that he was never cordially adopted by its partisans: but, admitting this to be otherwise, that was indeed

deed a costly liberality which shewed itself at the expence of substituting weak and obscure individuals for a man of talents so pre-eminent, who had rendered services so signal, who was so fully invested with public confidence, who bore a name so much respected abroad, and who had known so well how to command success. If, as the author represents, this and similar changes proceeded from a determination to act on enlarged views, it must be admitted that, however creditable the intention may be considered, the event proved highly unfortunate; and it furnished another instance of the evil of too rapid changes, and of the little dependence which can be placed on theories, be they ever so specious. The result, though melancholy, was a matter of triumph to the whigs. If the political bigotry of the two late reigns had not been shaken off, the country would have been saved many occasions of bitter regret; for it cannot be denied that, while the appointments were confined to the pale of whiggism, the empire flourished, and rose rapidly in the scale of power; and that from the moment at which another description of men came into place, the nation experienced nothing but agitations at home and humiliations abroad. If, however, the author palliates the blame of the dismissal of Pitt, he is not reluctant in displaying the merits of that illustrious statesman. The ground of difference on which he quitted office is fairly reported, and his various claims are exhibited in a strong light.

We cannot coincide in the censure here passed on Mr. Pitt, for not continuing a member of the cabinet after he had been out-voted in it in a matter immediately relating to his own department. We think that manliness and honesty called on him to act the part which he adopted; and if a near connection of that great man has lately practised this trimming, we cannot discover that the fruits of such temporizing recommend or sanction the practice. Besides, it requires no sagacity to perceive that he was considered as obstructing the progress of another who was ambitious to obtain absolute sway at home, and to raise to himself a name in Europe; and that on this account he was destined to be thwarted, till his spirit should determine him to abandon the field.

He who charges others with being *repeaters of reports* ought himself to set the example of deep research and diligent investigation: but of these features we cannot say that we discover many traces in this history, while we certainly could point out numerous instances of the want of them;—one occurs in the account here given of the peace of 1763. Among other reproaches cast on the authors of that treaty, was an accusation which charged them with a desertion of the king of Prussia,

and with a sort of treachery on the part of the Minister towards that monarch: but Dr. B. says that there is no authentic evidence to support that allegation. Archenholz, in his history of the seven years' war, having noticed the Minister's enmity to Frederic, asserts that he was so egregiously ignorant as not to be aware of the high veneration in which the Czar had ever held that great Prince, and not to be apprized of the clear proofs of it then recently furnished. He presumed that the new Emperor was desirous of retaining the provinces which had been taken from Prussia; and he offered to Prince Gallitzin, the Russian ambassador in London, to prevail on the Prussian monarch to give up such provinces as Russia might wish to keep: but Peter, we are told, wrote him a contemptuous answer, and sent the original proposal to Frederic. The same Minister, that historian farther says, busied himself in attempting to make peace between the Court of Vienna and the King of Prussia, completely without the privity of the latter; on which occasion he again made free with those provinces. Kaunitz, imagining this to be an intrigue to sow jealousy between the Courts of Vienna and Versailles, returned the British Envoy a very humiliating answer; saying that the Empress was powerful enough to make good her pretensions, and that it was below her dignity to conclude a peace by the intervention of England *. We are aware that the authority of this German writer is by no means of the first order: but he connects the charge with facts which ought to have been examined; and we see no temptations that could influence Archenholz to falsify in this instance. Supposing the accusation to be well-founded, a procedure of Frederic narrated in the same publication, and in other histories of the period, will serve to explain it †.

The most able part of this work is that which gives an account of the differences between Great Britain and her colonies. The result of the relation, and of the manly and appropriate observations which accompany it, appears to be in substance this; that the revolution was occasioned by the injustice, and by the weak and impolitic conduct, of the mother-country. The Ministers, the author contends, did not alone deserve the blame; since the Parliament and the people merit a large portion of it. Some actuated by a love of domination, and others influenced by avarice, anxiously desired to see their fellow-subjects deprived of valuable rights, hitherto enjoyed in

* See *Geschichte des Siebenjahrigen Krieges in Deutschland. Von J. W. von Archenholz.* 2 Theil. p. 270, 7.

† Vide the same work, 1 Theil. pp. 307—9.

common by all who lived under the British crown. It is distressing to find our country engaged in an unrighteous cause; in which the virtuous and patriotic bosom is reduced to the painful alternative of beholding oppression and lawless power prevail, or his native land weakened and degraded;—and not merely generous sympathy, but a sense of common interest, policy, and expediency, ought to have urged Britons to oppose the annihilation of the rights and privileges of the colonists. This chapter of history is highly worthy of the perusal and study of all who are likely to engage in, or who wish to judge correctly with respect to, the conduct of human affairs; since it shews, in the clearest light, the mischiefs of precipitancy and resentment, when they influence the measures of governments; and how dangerous it is for rulers to tamper with the liberties and franchises of the subject. We do not implicate the nation in this blame, to the extent to which the author carries it; and we believe that, if the Ministers had not adopted the plan of taxing the colonies, the people would never have proposed it, or might easily have been led to discern its injustice as well as its inexpediency. Yet we are of opinion that, if Parliament had preserved due impartiality between the parties, that is to say, between the administration and our trans-atlantic brethren; if it had coolly examined the questions in issue between them; if it had acted on information and inquiry, and had formed its judgment on principles of wisdom and impartiality; and if the people, instead of suffering themselves to be led by false views of interest, had been swayed by feelings which were most natural to them, and which would have done them the most credit; then, in spite of the presumption and folly of ministers, the empire would still have been entire, and the world have worn another face.

Dr. B. thus sketches the varieties which, at the time in question, the several populations of North America exhibited:

'Placed in a rigorous climate, and on a soil requiring active and persevering industry to render it productive, the New Englanders were strong, hardy, and capable of undergoing great labour and fatigue. Having many difficulties to overcome and dangers to encounter, they were formed to penetration, enterprise, and resolution. Their country, less bountiful than those of their southern neighbours, rendered recourse to traffic necessary. The puritanism which they inherited from their forefathers, *with its concomitant hypocrisy*, incorporated itself with their commercial conduct; and avarice is never keener than after a coalition with fanatical austerity, and never with more ardour uses the ministry of fraud, than when arrayed in the garb of sanctity. The traffic of New England, of a minute and detailed kind, less resembling the pursuit of an enlightened merchant than a petty shopkeeper, while it narrowed liberality, sharpened artifice.

artifiec. Inheriting a tinge of democratical republicanism, the people submitted with reluctance to the constitutional authority of a government in which monarchy made a considerable part, and spurned at the idea of yielding to what they conceived to be usurpation. Avarice being a prominent feature in their characters, they were peculiarly jealous of an apprehended usurpation, which was calculated to affect their purposes. As their sentiments and principles prompted them to oppose such attempts, their intelligent and bold character enabled them effectually to resist them. In the middle colonies, in which the temperature of the climate and fertility of the soil easily afforded the necessaries and accommodations of life, though active and industrious, the inhabitants were not equally hardy and enterprising; they were less austere in their manners, admitted luxury and refinement to a much greater degree than the colonists of the north, and were attached to a monarchial form of government. The southern colonies were dissipated, relaxed, and indolent; and therefore, though little adapted to resistance themselves, were well-fitted to receive impressions from more vigorous characters. The New Englanders were extremely active in diffusing their own sentiments through the provinces attached to the mother-country; till, at length, the spirit of dissatisfaction became so prevalent, as to attract the notice and animadversions of the British government.'

We do not mean altogether to question the justness of this picture: but we must observe that the unfavourable features in the character of the New Englanders are drawn with more strength than they present in the delineations of Mr. Burke, who had taken vast pains to inform himself on the subject. Neither do we dispute the attachment of Dr. Bisset to liberty: but we cannot avoid remarking that a love of it is not very consistent with a disposition to resolve all struggles in its favour, to such springs as avarice, hypocrisy, and puritanism. The cause suffers in proportion as the motives of those who act in it are vilified; and an impulsion which the most illustrious characters of Britain sanctioned, and which communicated itself rapidly to all the colonies, without excepting the most temperate and loyal, would seem to claim an origin more respectable than that which is here assigned to it.

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As the Parliament, which met on the 9th November 1774, was that which occasioned the mutilation of the empire, and the degradation of the kingdom, and which burthened its inhabitants to so enormous an extent, the reader may not be displeased to have presented to his view the sketches attempted by the present author, of the persons who principally figured in this senate:

'For examining such momentous questions, seldom has a national council contained a greater assemblage of ability, than the British parliament now exhibited. In the house of commons, among many men of considerable talents and extensive knowledge, there were ranged

ranged on the side of ministers, the financial information and accurate results of sir Grey Cooper; the perspicacious detail, solid judgment, and orderly arrangement, of sir Gilbert Elliot; and the intrepid confidence and manly boldness of Mr. Rigby. In rising progression, there followed the sound and vigorous understanding, the unremitting industry, the commercial, political and diplomatic knowledge, the lucid disposition, the correct and perspicuous expression of Jenkinson; and the acuteness, closeness, and neat precision of Germaine. Dundas *, from his first entrance into public life, exhibited those qualities by which he has been uniformly distinguished; an understanding quick, sagacious, and powerful; reasoning forcible, and direct, strictly adhering to the point at issue; an expeditious dispatch of difficult business; and, regarding the senate as a council for the direction of national affairs more than a theatre for the display of eloquence, he was in his language intelligible and strong, without ornament or elegance. A mind by nature penetrating, brilliant, and inventive, formed and refined by erudition and by literary † society, sharpened and invigorated by professional occupations, and enlarged by political studies and pursuits; an eloquence that he could admirably vary to the occasion, and exhibit either in argumentative force, logical subtlety and skill, or with all the ornaments of rhetoric and the graces of persuasion, rendered Wedderburne a valuable accession to any cause which he chose to support. For masculine energy of intellect, force devoid of ornament, and exhibiting itself in efforts direct, simple, and majestic, Thurlow stood eminent. Lord North was equally remarkable for pleasing and varied wit and humour, classical taste, erudition, and allusion, as for dexterity of argument and felicity of reply. On the other side were arrayed, the patriotism and solidity of Dempster and Saville; the industry and colonial information of Pownal; the colloquial pleasantry, vivacity, and classical erudition of Wilkes; the animated declamation of Barrè; the quick apprehension, commercial and political knowledge, of Johnstone; and the constitutional principles, legal precision, readiness, acuteness, and vigour, of Dunning. Above these, rose the extensive, accurate, and multifarious knowledge, the abundant and diversified imagery, the luminous illustration and rapid invention; the reasoning, dilated or compressed, digressive or direct, disjointed or continuous, which, if not always pointedly convincing, never failed to be generally instructive; the comprehensive views and philosophical eloquence, of a Burke. A senator was now rising to the first rank in the first assembly of the world, who must have held a very exalted situation in any convention of statesmen and orators recorded in history, this was Charles James Fox. In the twentieth year of his age he had become a member of parliament, and young as he was, distinguished himself among the many eminent members of the house, and was at

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' * Lord advocate of Scotland.'

' † He was the intimate friend of Smith, Robertson, and Fergusson, and their cotemporaries, in their early years; and cultivated an acquaintance with Burke, Johnson, and other eminent scholars in his more advanced life.'

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first one of the ablest supporters of administration. The facility with which he made himself master of a new question, and comprehended with such force of judgment the strength weakness, and tendency, of a proposition or measure; his powerful argumentation, his readiness of the most appropriate, significant, and energetic language, soon rendered him conspicuous; while his daily and obvious improvement shewed that his talents had not then nearly reached the pinnacle at which they were destined to arrive. Since he joined opposition, his talents and exertions appeared more potent and formidable than even had been expected *.

'In the house of peers, the chief supporters of administration were, lord Hillsborough, a nobleman of sound judgment and official experience; earl Gower, a peer of good character and extensive influence, who, in the minority of the duke, headed the Bedford party; and the earl of Sandwich, acute and intelligent as a senator, but a judicious speaker rather than a splendid orator. The only peer of transcendent genius who joined ministers in the coërcive system, was lord Mansfield; a personage very eminently distinguished for abilities and erudition, and for argumentative, refined, and persuasive eloquence; but the fame of this illustrious senator was principally founded upon his oratorial and judicial powers and efforts, and derived little accession from his counsels as a statesman. The most distinguished peers who were inimical to the coërcive system, were the Marquis of Rockingham, whom we have viewed as minister; the duke of Richmond, a nobleman of respectable abilities, active, indefatigable, and ardent; Lord Shelburne, whom we have seen as secretary of state, distinguished for extent of general knowledge, and peculiarly marked for his extensive views of the reciprocal relations, commercial and political, of European states; Lord Camden, the great bulwark of English law, profoundly versed in our constitution, with that mild, clear, and nervous eloquence, which is the firm, and efficacious instrument of wisdom; and lastly, in himself a host, the earl of Chatham.'

It will appear from this extract, that the author's chief aim has been to discover all that was favourable in the public characters of the day; a disposition which we have already noticed, and which, however amiable, deprives History of one of her most august functions.

The separate provinces of the Coryphæi of opposition in the course of this war are thus described by the author:

'The transcendent genius of Messrs. Burke and Fox, though exercised in every subject that came before parliament, had two different fields on which they respectively displayed their greatest excellence. The legislative plans proposed by opposition, projects of conciliation, and other schemes of deliberative policy, requiring the union of accurate and extensive detail, with confirmed habits of generalization, were most frequently the productions of Mr. Burke. Discussions of executorial plans, and concise inquiries concerning specific

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'* A part of this account is taken, with considerable variations, from the life of Burke, first edition, p. 210 to 218.'

measures,

measures, requiring also energy of intellect, firmness and decision of temper, but without demanding such a compass of general knowledge, or at least equal habits of philosophic contemplation, came chiefly from Mr. Fox.'

In the subsequent extract, we have the plan of the war; which, as Dr. Bisset remarks, appears to have been ably conceived, and to have merited a better cause, and a better fate:

'The main object of military operations was New York; and for making this part of America the chief seat of war, there were various reasons. The province of New York, running north-west, joins with Canada, that runs south-west, and both together enclose New England, and divide it from the southern colonies. By possessing New York and the southern part of the province, while the Canadian army invaded it on the north, a communication, it was conceived, might be established between the secondary and primary army; both could cooperate vigorously, easily reduce New England, afterwards act in concert against the more southern colonies, and procure the assistance of the back-settlers, many of whom were well disposed to the mother-country. New York was a centrical position, from which operations might be directed either to the one side or the other, as occasion might serve, or circumstances require, so that this position enabled the British commander to prescribe the scene of action, and to quit it when he chose; and if the army were withdrawn from the field, the great north river, and the different channels between the islands and the main land, would enable him, by his ships and detachments, to harass the adjoining countries; while the provincials, however powerful, could make no attempt upon the islands that would not be attended with greater inconveniencies, and liable to imminent danger. Besides these advantages, Long Island was very fertile in wheat and all other corns*, abounded with herds and flocks, and was deemed almost equal alone to the maintenance of an army. In the province, especially in the upper part towards Albany, there were reported to be many loyalists, who would flock to the British standard as soon as they could manifest their sentiments safely. New York, from these circumstances, was an object of high importance, and its attainment was not reckoned difficult; much the better part of the province is enclosed in islands, which being long and narrow, were exposed on all sides to attacks from our fleets, and to the descents of our troops; and when conquered, the protection of the ships of war would be as effectual in their preservation, as their hostility had been in their reduction. These were the reasons on which the military plan was founded; and whatever the sentiments of the reader may be respecting the wisdom of the statesman who proposed, and the lawgivers who adopted the measures which produced enmities between America and the mother-country, he will probably without hesitation admit, that the plan of military operation was not discreditable to the talents of its author as a war minister. But the history now proceeds to narrate its execution.'

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* Corn*s*, plural, for *corn*. This and other expressions bespeak the northern origin of Dr. Bisset.

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The delicate situation, into which the declaration of the colonists threw their parliamentary friends, is properly noticed in the following passage:

'The declaration of American independence placed the supporters of the colonists in a situation never before known in the history of parliament; the Americans were no longer fellow-subjects complaining of grievances, but a separate state engaged in hostilities with this country. Parliamentary annals do not before this session afford an instance of a party in our senate avowedly defending the cause of a power with which our country was at war, with the approbation of both the senate and nation. Members may have censured either the impolicy or precipitancy of intended hostilities, but after they were actually commenced, have abstained from such opposition, as tending to inspirit the enemy, and to dishearten their countrymen. They have objected to specific plans for carrying on the war, and censured instances of rash or feeble execution; but their animadversions were confined to management without extending to origin: they shewed themselves aware that when a powerful state is once involved in a war, the only effectual means of honourable and secure extrication are vigorous efforts; but the opponents of ministers at this period took a different course, and however prudent and just their exertions might be while they tended to avert war, they became much more questionable in point of expediency, from the time that the colonies separated themselves from the mother-country.'

In speaking of Major Patrick Fergusson, who had invented a new species of rifle, Dr. B. records a very curious incident; which proves that in brave minds the sentiments of nature, even in the midst of human carnage, are sometimes too strong to yield to the calls of professional engagements. The anecdote also shews the great danger in which General Washington was once placed, and the coolness with which he conducted himself in his perilous situation. The Major related, in a letter to Dr. Fergusson, that he and some of his men were placed on a skirt of a wood in front of General Knyphausen's division:

"We had not lain long when a rebel officer, remarkable by a Hussar dress, passed towards our army, within a hundred yards of my right flank, not perceiving us. He was followed by another dressed in dark green and blue, mounted on a good bay horse, with a remarkable large high cocked hat. I ordered three good shots to steal near to them and fire at them; but the idea disgusted me; I recalled the order. The Hussar in returning made a circuit, but the other passed within a hundred yards of us; upon which I advanced from the wood towards him. Upon my calling, he stopped; but after looking at me, proceeded; I again drew his attention, and made sign to him to stop, levelling my piece at him; but he slowly continued his way. As I was within that distance at which, in the quickest firing, I could have lodged half a dozen balls in or about him before he was out of my

my reach, I had only to determine; but it was not pleasant to fire at the back of an unoffending individual, who was acquitting himself very coolly of his duty, so I let him alone. The day after, I had been telling this story to some wounded officers who lay in the same room with me, when one of our surgeons who had been dressing the wounded rebel officers came in and told us, that they had been informing him, that General Washington was all the morning with the light troops, and only attended by a French officer in a hussar dress, he himself dressed and mounted in every point as above described. I am not sorry that I did not know at the time who it was."

We recommend this anecdote to the consideration of all patrons of this mode of prosecuting war.

The author describes the campaign of 1777 as having few parallels in military history, for uniting efficiency of force and multiplicity of operation with futility of result; and such, he says, must impartial history transmit to posterity the warfare of General Sir W. Howe in America.

In the ensuing passage, in which Dr. Bisset speaks of the ministry with not more than due severity, he seems to have forgotten the favourable pictures which he had drawn of each minister separately. The observations which it contains display, in a narrow compass, the whole mass of their errors:

'In reviewing the policy of the successive counsellors concerned in our disputes with America, and considering the value of the objects, and the efficacy of the means, an attempt to discover grand, comprehensive, and beneficially practicable principles and schemes would be vain. Ministers had reasoned and acted as political empirics, and had even evinced themselves deficient in the limited experience to which an empiric trusts. Their proceedings not only proved them devoid of political wisdom, but of common information, on very obvious cases, which it behoved them to have thoroughly investigated. It is easy to see that combined wisdom and magnanimity might have avoided the American war; by abstaining from imposts less productive than advantageous, which were enjoyed before their enactment; by concession, when more profitable than coercion; by voluntary grants, more glorious than attempts to exact; or if conciliatory offers of renewed intercourse availed nothing, by rather totally abandoning the object, than persisting in it through means to which the value of the end was so little proportionate.'

When Dr. B. is called to treat of the peace of 1783, he seems hardly either to censure or to vindicate the terms of it. We are aware that this is a measure to which the range of our criticism does not properly extend; and we own ourselves not to be politicians enough to form a confident judgment respecting it. We can only say that we have never seen it proved to our satisfaction, that, in the circumstances to which the country had been then reduced, the terms were not fully as

good as could have been expected: but we have no hesitation in declaring that it puzzles our ordinary understandings, when we find statesmen of the first order, who condemned the peace of Paris, express themselves satisfied with the treaty of Amiens.

Great impartiality prevails in the author's account of the period of peace, which intervened between the American and the French revolutionary war; and the merits of the then contending parties are weighed in an even balance. In this part of the work, the attention is chiefly attracted by an elaborate panegyric on Lord Mansfield, composed of shewy generalities, and in which the outlines and features that marked the character of this illustrious magistrate are with difficulty traced. The mind of this very able judge, it is evident, was not indued with any aptitude for political discussions. He was great only in the courts; and even there he betrayed a leaning to power, and a subjection to prejudice, which would have disgraced an ordinary man, and which his fine talents and eminent attainments alone prevented from being more noticed.

The most valuable of the present volumes are those which bring down the history to the close of the American war; those which treat of our last contest, though they exhibit many portions of praise-worthy narrative, are on the whole by no means so well digested, and offer fewer results of adequate investigation or able analysis. In so extensive a performance, we can only remark on prominent points; and to enter into general detail, or exercise minute criticism, would be impossible. We shall therefore conclude this article with the insertion of two or three extracts, which contain the sentiments of the author on the conduct of our two great political characters, in junctures which have been regarded as peculiarly affecting their fame and reputation. We refer to his observations on the conduct of Mr. Fox, with regard to his India bill, and the sentiments which he delivered when the constitution of Canada was discussed; and on the cast of Mr. Pitt's mind, as it is to be collected from the law which he introduced to regulate political meetings. The language of the writer is not that of a partisan, nor of a servile advocate: but it appears to proceed, and we think that it in a great degree *does* proceed, from the exercise of judgment, discrimination, and impartiality. Giving an account of the proceedings on the India bill, Dr. B. thus proceeds:

'Mr Fox's opponents illustrated their conceptions of his scheme, by comparing him to Oliver Cromwel, Julius Cæsar, Catiline, and other celebrated projectors of usurpation. But an attentive consideration of his character, dispositions, and habits, and, above all, his uniform

uniform conduct, by no means justifies the charge of *solitary* ambition. Social in private life, Mr. Fox has always courted association in politics; ambitious of sway, he has sought not only to acquire it by, but to enjoy it with, a party. Besides, had he been ever so desirous of the solitary dominion of protector or dictator, he must have known that in Britain he never could have attained so uncontrolled a power. His sagacity would not have suffered his designs so very far to outgo every probability of success. Confining the proposed schemes of this great man somewhat near the bounds of probable execution, the historian may fairly venture to affirm, that he intended, by his India bill, to secure the continuance of power to himself, his whig confederacy, and their new allies; and that the whole series of his conduct was a practical adoption of the doctrines of his friend Mr. Burke, in his "Thoughts on the Discontents," exhibiting all the beauties of poetry and depth of philosophy, to minister to party politics, and applying the energies of his genius, the stores of his wisdom, and the fascination of his fancy, to shew that Britain, disregarding the choice of the king, or the talents of the subject, ought to be governed by a whig association. On the whole, it is evident, that one of the chief objects of the coalition was, to establish the united parties in the management of government. It is no less manifest, that the East India bill both tended, and was designed to secure to the confederacy the continuance of power. So far impartial history must concur with the opponents of the illustrious Fox. But the reasonableness of the censure, and even obloquy which he thereby incurred, is much more questionable. That Mr. Fox loved power is very obvious, and abstractly neither deserving of praise nor censure. There is little doubt that he was not the minister of the king's predilection and personal choice. The appointment of his executive servants is certainly by the constitution vested in his majesty; but various cases have occurred in the history of England, in which it was not only requisite, but necessary, for the king, in the exercise of his prerogative, to sacrifice private prepossessions to general good: such an event has happened, and always may happen under a free constitution, of which the object is the welfare of the community. The court doctrine at this time, that Mr. Fox and his adherents merited the severest reprobation, *because* they wished to administer the government contrary to the inclination of the king, is by no means obviously true. The unbiassed historian must consider the question on the broad grounds of expediency. Had or had not Charles James Fox, in his parliamentary and executorial conduct, shewn such intellectual talents, such force, energy, and decision of mind, as would have rendered him a momentous accession to the counsels of the nation, when the state of affairs required the exertion of the greatest abilities which it contained? Those who thought that he had manifested such talents and qualities, were, by patriotic duty, bound to support the continuance, or attempt the restoration of his power. Mr. Fox, though not thirty-five years of age, was an old senator: for ten years his wisdom, viewing situation and conduct, had predicted events and results with an accuracy almost prophetic. His lessons as a statesman, he had received from moral and political

science, thorough conversancy with the British constitution, government, and interests, impressed more forcibly on his mind by practical contemplation of the errors of systems, the insufficiency of plans, and the imbecility of execution, followed to their fatal effects. *For only eleven months and a quarter*, in two cabinets, had he been minister. With the Marquis of Rockingham, he, in four months, had pacified and enfranchised the discontented and oppressed Ireland; he had prepared for terminating a ruinous war; and had promoted retrenchment of the expenditure, which was so burdensome to the nation. In the coalition ministry, he had persevered in promoting œconomical regulations, which were so much wanted; and had begun succesfully to move stagnant commerce. His India bill, even if admitted to be wrong in its object and principle, yet was certainly grand, comprehensive, and efficient. If there was error, it arose, not from the defect of weakness, but the excess of strength. It displayed a range of survey, a fertility and force of invention, a boldness and decision of plan, an openness and directness of execution, that stamped its author as a man of sublime genius, who fearlessly unfolded and published his conceptions. The impartial narrator, using the best of his judgment, must disapprove of the infringement of charters *, at least till proof was established that their objects had been violated, or deem the new power created greater than was either necessary for its purpose, or consistent with the balance of the constitution; but must acknowledge, that its territorial operation would have been thoroughly and immediately efficacious. The perspicuity of the whole, and every clause, manifested the extent and bounds of the delegated power, defined the mode of its exercise, and the open responsibility under which the trust was to be discharged; and in marking the line of duty, shewed the unavoidable consequences of transgression; by precluding the probability of unpunished guilt, it tended to prevent the recurrence of oppression; ascertaining the tenure, and securing the rights of property, it would stimulate industry, and render British India infinitely more productive to the proprietors and nation, besides diffusing comfort and happiness to the natives, so long the objects of an iniquity which was disgraceful to the British name. These were the benefits which must have obviously resulted from the plan of Mr. Fox. The confiscation of charters could only be defended on the ground of necessity, and Mr. Fox had not evinced that necessity, and was therefore precipitate and blameable in proposing to proceed upon an assumption, in a case of so high an importance both as to policy and justice. But his propositions on this part of the subject did not necessarily imply unfair intentions. The influence which must have accrued to the confederacy might have been formidable to the consti-

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'* I have been informed by a member of the party that some very eminent senators belonging to it, especially a gentleman who has since risen to be one of its heads, privately advised Mr. Fox to leave the commercial management to the company. If that advice had been followed, the chief ground of popular reproach would have been prevented, and Mr. Fox might have continued to be minister.'

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tution, but if it proved so, its dangers must have arisen from the legislators, the guardians of our polity, as to these the proposed commissioners were to be amenable. The new influence might increase ministerial majorities in parliament, but great means of such an augmentation must have arisen from any plan for taking the territorial possessions under the direction of the British government. His East India scheme, both in itself and in combination with his other acts, and the series of his conduct, displayed those talents and qualities, which, when joined, place the possessor in the highest rank of statesmen, and shew him fully competent to render to his country the most momentous services. The plan itself is of a mixed character, and liable to many strong objections; yet the impartial examiner will not easily discover, in the whole of this scheme, reasons to convince him, that *because Mr. Fox proposed this plan for governing India, it was beneficial to the country to be deprived of the executorial efforts of his transcendent abilities.* The historian, unconnected with party, and considering merely the will and power of individuals or bodies to promote the public good, must lament what truth compels him to record, that a personage equalled by so few in extent of capacity and force of character, in fitness for benefiting the nation, during a political life of thirty-five years, should have been enjoyed as a minister by his country only *once for three months and a half, and again for seven months and three quarters.* The situation of the empire required the united efforts of the greatest political abilities, but Britain was not destined to possess the executorial exertions OF BOTH her most consummate statesmen.'

On the discussion which took place respecting the constitution of Canada, Dr. B. observes that the impartial examiner cannot find a single sentence or even phrase of Mr. Fox, which was not highly favourable to the British constitution.

Referring to the acts restrictive of liberty, introduced by Mr. Pitt and Lord Grenville in 1795, the author says:

'These acts tended greatly to shake the popularity of Mr. Pitt through the kingdom. However efficient they might be for remedying the specific evils that prevailed, yet even many friends of government thought they did much more than the necessity of the case justified. Persons unconnected with party admitted the expediency of extending the treason-laws to conspiracies for levying war against the sovereign and constitution; but disapproved of the vague and general description of this new species of treason, including in its overt acts whatever had a *tendency* to rebellion against the king, government, or legislature. This clause they considered as a deviation from the spirit of English laws: it opened, they said, a door for the arbitrary and oppressive constructions which characterize absolute and tyrannical systems; and was therefore contrary to the principles and objects of the British constitution. The restrictions upon the press, imposed by the same act, by many well affected to government were deemed to admit also too much latitude of construction; to subject literary effort to the control of ministers,

and to enchain the freedom of the press. It was allowed by every candid and impartial man, that the harangues and lectures of demagogues, in periodical and occasional conventicles, were extremely dangerous, and required to be prevented; but, on the other hand, it was asserted, that the laws in existence were sufficient for punishing whatever sedition could be proved to have been uttered; that the whole community ought not to be debarred from assembling, because incendiaries had, in certain assemblies, violated the laws. The right of discussing public measures belongs to every free-born Briton; its exercise promotes his sense of personal importance; the best nourisher of liberty and independence. Other Britons were not to be debarred from enjoying such privileges, because a foolish, virulent, or malignant lecturer, abused his exercise of the same right. The restriction tended to enervate the spirit of freedom, and thus to effect a great, general, and permanent evil, in order to remedy a partial and temporary evil. The most solid and effectual answer to these very forcible objections was, that the obnoxious laws were only intended to be temporary.

'The abilities of Mr. Pitt often manifested themselves in turning public opinion into the current which best suited his political views; but one engine he appears not to have estimated with his usual perspicacity: Mr. Pitt laid too little stress upon literary efficacy: while the press is free, literary power will produce great effects on public opinion. The minister was not deemed favourable to writers, as a class: perceiving that they had frequently done much mischief in France, he appeared to have drawn an inference too hasty, that they ought to be discouraged in England. The laws in question, and other acts, tended to restrain the market for literary commodities, consequently to do an aggregate hurt to the profession. This effect literary men felt, and many of them strongly and efficiently expressed their feelings: habits of combination, analysis, comparison, and deduction of general principles, enabled them to view and estimate the character of the legislative measures of Mr. Pitt. In these they professed to discover, that the greater part of our new laws had a reference, either to public revenue, or to the security of the monarchical part of the constitution; and that few, of any extensive operation, are of the class that may be denominated popular.'

However defective in polish this production may be, no one who peruses it will deny that the author seems to have possessed the ability, the information, and the industry, which would have enabled him to discharge successfully the task which he imposed on himself. From the preceding account, our readers will judge to what degree the Doctor has employed these means, and in what respects the work may be considered as liable to objections.

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Art.

ART. IV. *General View of the Agriculture of Hertfordshire.* Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. By the Secretary of the Board. 8vo. pp. 236. 6s. sewed. Nicol. 1804.

COMPARATIVE agriculture must serve to stimulate intelligent cultivators to improvement, even if it produces no other benefit. Men of spirit and science cannot endure the thought of being outstripped in the race of public utility, and of possessing the means of enriching themselves without deriving the utmost advantage from such capabilities. The County Surveys, which we have already perused, place our landed gentlemen and farmers in a most respectable point of view: since hence we perceive that Agriculture, which has been not improperly termed "the noblest study of man," is nobly pursued; and that, in all parts of Great Britain, men of knowlege and property are directing their attention to every branch of this subject. From this cause, the General View of Counties, published by the Board of Agriculture, though still deficient in many respects, are more valuable than they otherwise would have been. It was not the want of a Colbert or a Louvois, which occasioned the failure of Louis XIV., when, in 1698, he attempted to obtain a particular description of each province in his kingdom, but the general ignorance which then prevailed among the occupiers of the soil in France. Very different is the case with us: for how many in every part of the island are both able and willing to aid the labours of the professed reporter, and to detail their experiments and the result of their practice for the general good!

In addition to the notices obtained from many respectable agriculturists, Mr. Young is able to subjoin his own experience, having for several years occupied a considerable farm in the county which he now undertakes to describe: a circumstance which, added to his known sagacity of research, cannot fail of stamping a value on the present memoir. To some articles of the printed plan, however, no attention has been given; and in particular we have no mention of the amount of the population. Perhaps the Secretary was unable to satisfy himself on this head: but even the impossibility of obtaining an accurate account ought to have been stated.

It appears from this report that Hertfordshire (or Hartfordshire) is situated between the parallels of 51° 37′ and 52° 5′ north latitude, measures 28 miles from east to west, 36 from north to south, and 130 in circumference, and contains, in the whole, 302,080 acres.

'Of these { 46,720 / 90,240 / 5,120 / 142,720 / 17,280 } acres are { chalk. / clay. / rich loam. / loam. / poor gravel.

302,080'

Chalk is to be found at various depths throughout the county, and a map is given of the surface-soil: but the reader is cautioned against supposing that this map presents an accurate discrimination. 'The truth (says the Reporter) is that the soils of this county mix and run into each other in a remarkable manner; so that, except in the case of chalk, and that singularly unfertile land, which I term *gravel*, they are traced and named with a good deal of uncertainty; not for want, I trust, of attention in making the observations, but from the varying qualities of the respective soils.' Having coloured different districts of the map, to express loam, clay, chalk, and gravel, justice required this explanation: but why, under the circumstances of the case, was colouring employed, to render such explanation necessary?

In the section on *Water*, Mr. Young takes notice of the canals which intersect Hertfordshire, in connection with its Agriculture, and suggests hints for removing the difficulties which at present obstruct the conveyance of manure from the metropolis:

'From the information which I could gain on this subject, several arrangements appear to be wanted, before this great work can be turned to all the advantage which the agriculture of Hertfordshire should derive from it. It appears that the benefit of bringing bulky manures, is extremely questionable at present; and the fact is, that vast quantities of hay and straw go to London, from the very banks of the canal, by land-carriage, the carts bringing dung back, which does not answer when brought by the navigation. There is an apparent absurdity in this, which should be removed. It seems to arise from the want of magazines and wharfs at Paddington, where a hay and straw market should be immediately established, so that both articles might be sold directly from the barges, which should be immediately loaded with manures from the wharfs. Proper steps have not been taken hitherto to effect these objects; and till such are determined and well executed, the obvious benefits of the work will be too speculative to effect those great improvements which ought to result from it. A beast and sheep market there should also be established, which would prove very beneficial to all the central grazing counties. Manures come at too heavy an expence, from the double cartage at London, which might very easily be prevented. When these necessary arrangements shall have been effected, we shall see land carriage parallel to the line of the canal laid aside; and a consi-

derable saving will be made by the non-employment of many horses; the roads will be consequently preserved; and the use of manures will be greatly extended among the farmers who live within reach of the canal.'

The remark under the heads of Estate and the size of Farms merits notice:

'Property in Hertfordshire is much divided: the vicinity of the capital; the goodness of the air and roads, and the beauty of the country, have much contributed to this circumstance, by making this county a favourite residence, and by attracting great numbers of wealthy persons to purchase land for building villas: this has multiplied estates in a manner unknown in the more distant counties. About 7000l. a-year is the largest estate in the county: there are six or seven from 3 to 4000l.; more of about 2000l.; and below that sum, of every value.

'In the more eastern counties, the farmers have been very considerable purchasers of land; a circumstance that has not happened, except in very few instances, in Hertfordshire. The farms are not large, and the expences of agriculture are higher than common; which may account for the want of this sign of farming wealth.'—

'The inquiry into the benefits of large and small farms, as a general question, belongs not to a County Report; but the vicinity to London, which influences so materially the cultivation of Hertfordshire, demands a local observation. It is the general opinion of the district, that the soil cannot be kept in that degree of fertility necessary to support the rental and other expences of it, without bringing large quantities of manure from the capital; a business indifferently executed on very small farms. All the exertions of this kind, which claimed any notice, are upon large ones; so much so, that I have little doubt but that the greatest breadth of land thus dressed, in proportion to the size of the farms, has been upon the two greatest in the county, though one of them, Mr. Doo's of Bygrave, is near forty miles from London; and the fact may fairly be used in argument against an indiscriminate condemnation of large farms. Another circumstance which should be noticed here is, the general predilection for the application of the sheep fold, which is more universal in this county than in any other with which I am acquainted. What a system of waste, both of time and labour, must it be, to set a fold for 20 or 30 sheep! In proportion, therefore, as folding is necessary, a large farm is necessary; for it cannot be practised advantageously on any other.'

The plashing of fences, as practised in Hertfordshire, is recommended, and, where beauty is required, the clipping of them: but Mr. Y. observes that hedges thus treated 'cease to be the collieries of a county:' a most material objection where fuel is scarce. By the sides of public roads, it is advisable to trim up the hedges, and to keep them low: but, independently of the imprudence of destroying these vegetable collieries, the general effect on the landscape would be far from beautiful.

On

On the process in managing arable land, the great object of Hertfordshire husbandry, Mr. Young is very minute; and his remarks are prefaced by a piece of historical information which perhaps is new to most of our readers, viz. 'that turnips and clover are supposed to have been introduced into this county in the time of Oliver Cromwel, who gave 100l. a-year on that account to a farmer of the name of Howe; and that it appears also, by old leases, that the course of crops, and the management in general, have experienced very little change in the last hundred years.'

Preparation of wheat introduces the subjects of Steeps and Smut, the former being generally supposed to be a preventative of the latter: but it still may fairly be a matter of doubt whether the preparation of the seed has any connection with the disease termed Smut, by which the substance of the grain is converted into a kind of small puff-ball or fungus. A proper caution is given against the use of chamber-ley; which, if added after brining, or if the corn be steeped in it when it is stale, kills the wheat:

'Mr. Leach has bought smutty wheat, to sow for curiosity, and even the worst which he could find: he steeped it six hours in a very strong brine, made to swim a large egg: he dried it with hot lime, and sowed it directly, and had no smut. He has tried this several times, always with success. He steeps clean wheat but three hours.

'Mr. Sedgwick steeps his seed in brine, as above, six hours; then dries it with lime, and sows it directly; and he never has any smut: he omitted it three or four years, and suffered severely by such omission.'

The Reporter observes under the title *Smut:*

'There seems to be no security against this distemper in any part of the county; yet under the article *Steeps*, it is seen that they generally pickle the seed. This disorder must, therefore, arise from the too general practice of only wetting the seed with the brine, or of steeping it too short a time; and very possibly from swimming too much together, by which the skimming of it is very much impeded.'

An annotator, who signs H, assures us that these opinions are just; yet we venture to question them. We have known smutty wheat sown without preparation, and no smut has appeared at the harvest; and we have also sown the best seed which could be procured, and brined and limed it with care, but smut has still manifested itself in the crop. If the cause of this disease were in the grain before it was deposited in the ground, could a saline steep reach it? That which affects the germ, as chamber-ley, may destroy vegetation; and that which affects only that part which perishes in the ground can have little

connection

connection with the quality of the future produce. We request farmers to consider whether smut be not occasioned by a baneful influence on the plant in its growing state, and particularly when it is in bloom. The internal part of each grain is then in a soft pulpy state, which, under favouring circumstances, becomes a hard farinaceous substance: but, by being checked in its natural progress, or by having its tender structure destroyed, it is converted into a black powder. If such be the theory of smut, brining can be of little use: yet farmers are everywhere partial to the practice.

Among the Hertfordshire cultivators, the name of the *Marchioness* of Salisbury frequently occurs; and in one place, *her Ladyship* is designated by the epithet of 'this excellent farmer.' The sections on *Parsnips* and *Beets* detail only her practice:

'SECT. XV.—PARSNIPS.

'This plant makes a great figure in the experiment ground of the Marchioness of SALISBURY: the crop is good, and quite clean. Fatting oxen consume them most advantageously: their benefit thus applied, is so great as nearly to equal, in the opinion of Mr. STEPHENSON, oil-cake: they are consequently excellent for all stock, but superior in fatting bullocks.

'SECT. XVI.—BEETS.

'The common red beet, and the root of scarcity, are cultivated successfully in the experiment ground of the Marchioness of SALISBURY; the former answer greatly in fattening cattle, almost as well as parsnips, and better than carrots.'

The evidence here collected by Mr. Young, respecting the Drill-Husbandry, is not in its favour. After having stated several experiments, he says:

'A conclusion is fairly to be drawn, that a method of putting in crops which has failed with several intelligent cultivators, and only partially succeeded with some others, cannot be generally necessary as a means of profit. The observations relative to barley and oats are against the practice. I allude here to nothing done or talked of in other counties, as my business is with Hertfordshire; and certainly in this county, the experiments made, by no means ascertain that any advantage whatever may really exist; nor will the point be cleared up in this county, till some capital farmer, by means of drilling, shall exceed the crops and profit which a YOUNG of Hurral, a WHITTINGTON of Broad-water, and a Doo of Bygrave gain by the common method.'

Of Irrigation, we are informed, great opportunities occur in this county, but this improvement is obstructed by the frequency of mills. On this fact a judicious comment is made by the reporter, which deserves the attention of juries:

'The

'The contests between millers and occupiers of land, are perpetual and universal all over the kingdom. It would be well worthy the attention of the Board, to obtain an equitable decision of the points contested, or likely to be contested: at present, the *fashion* of law is favourable to millers, and unfavourable to flooding, although the latter is considerably more beneficial to society; for almost any water mill is capable of flowing, by means of a level taken from its head, more land than would pay the rent of the mill; and without losing many days' grinding in the year. Mr. BAKEWELL, of Dishley, took a lease of Dishley-mill, which enabled him to improve his land more in its annual value than twice the rent of the mill; but such improvement by no means rendered the mill useless. J. HUTCHINSON made a similar offer to Lord SALISBURY, for an old paper-mill at Hatfield, but it was refused; he then availed himself of an old prescriptive right of taking water without consent, but it was scarcely sufficient; notwithstanding which, he effected the improvement before-mentioned. Mr. MAWE afterwards took the Salisbury-Arms inn, and with it the demesne lands which J. HUTCHINSON sold to Lord SALISBURY at Woodhall: he neglected the flowing the meadows, and they became very bad: he has since left the place.'

Minutes are collected to ascertain the important question respecting the most profitable breeds of sheep, to which this general result is subjoined:

'The most interesting feature of these minutes, is the comparison of the Wiltshire and South Down breeds. Amongst very practical and reasonable men, the notion of the former doing best on turnips, and the latter on grass, has gained such ground, that I can scarcely conceive it to be a mere prejudice: and I ought to remark, that I have in other counties, and on various occasions, met with so many instances of Wiltshire wethers paying greatly for turnips, that I am inclined to think there is much truth in the Hertfordshire notion. Let me combine it with another well known fact, which is, that the Norfolk breed also pay remarkably well while fatting on turnips, I take these two breeds to be, generally speaking, the worst in the kingdom: it is, therefore, somewhat remarkable, that they should agree in this point of merit. It is sufficiently evident, that accurate experiments (by no means easy to make) are much wanted, clearly to ascertain such facts; which certainly ought to be ascertained more satisfactorily than any general ideas or remarks, or general experience can effect.'

The comparative merit of horses and oxen employed in agriculture makes a part of this as of other similar County Surveys. It is remarked, against the use of bullocks 'that they are very improperly said, in the First Report, to be fittest for strong heavy lands; for they poach and spoil the land, and tire themselves much worse than horses: it can only answer to keep them where there is plenty of pasture land of moderate

rate value, and where wages of men are low; because, by reason of their slowness, a great deal of the time of those employed about them is lost.'

An able advocate for oxen is found in Mr. Young's correspondent, the Hon. George Villiers; part of whose letter we shall extract:

'I have often heard that bullocks will plough an acre of strong land in as short a time as horses: I have not found this to be the case; but though they may remain two hours longer in the field, they do not require stable attendance after their work. They cannot bear heat in the summer months equal to horses, and therefore (with me) they enter upon their work at two or three o'clock in the morning, by which means they nearly complete their business in the cool part of the day. However, the point on which I lay my greatest stress, on the advantage of bullocks over horses, is on the few (comparative) diseases to which the former are subject, and which instantly reduce the value of the latter perhaps from forty to four guineas. Spavins, grease, cankers, broken wind, blindness, farcy, mange, are all disorders very common among farm horses, not to mention more frequent injuries than to bullocks, from colds, kicks, and bad shoeing: on the other hand, except where a bullock appears to have too relaxed and weak a habit, I know of no disorder which reduces his real value; and it rests with his owner what improvement he wishes him to make for the butcher whilst in the yoke.'

The chapter on Political Economy is short, and contains little worth notice; except the high earnings of the straw-plaiters, and a letter respecting the Poor from Mr. Villiers to the Secretary.

Only two articles appear under the head *Miscellaneous*; viz. the price of land in Hertfordshire, and an account of Lady Salisbury's experimental farm.

From the specimens which we have given of the contents of this volume, a tolerable idea may be formed respecting its execution; which will not be found to lessen Mr. Young's character either as an agriculturist or a writer. It is embellished, in addition to the map of the county already mentioned, with plates representing the Hertfordshire mode of making hedges, and a moveable sheep-house invented by Mr. Villiers.

Mo-y.

Art. V. *The British Museum;* or elegant Repository of Natural History. By William Holloway, and John Branch, A. M. Four Vols. 12mo. 1l. 8s. Boards. Badcock. 1803 and 1804.

As an abridged and popular view of animated nature, this compilation has some claim to our favourable notice. The quadrupeds, in particular, are delineated with a considerable degree

degree of interest: but the fishes and insects, though they form numerous and important classes, are dispatched with inconsiderate brevity. An index at the end of Vol. IV. is intended to supply the want of scientific arrangement. The publishers have not been sparing of their coloured plates: but among them we remark several that are rude or grotesque.

The style of the compilers, on the whole, is clear and appropriate, though it is too often marred by a contempt of the established concord of noun and verb. Thus we have 'the teeth of the elephant *has* caused,'—'the shortness of his legs *prevent*,'—'a bag with which it is furnished *approximate*,'—'the conformation of the minuter parts *were*,'—'their stock of provisions rarely *fail*,'—'their habit of laying traps for other animals *render*,'—'the blood of seventy thousand people *were*,—'the whole extent of their cells sometimes *exceed*,'—'the holy scriptures *gives* us,' &c.—*Torpitude* and *torpidity* are very unnecessary substitutes for *torpor;* and we are little enamoured of such expressions as, 'had not have been taken,'—and 'escape all possibility of escape.' The misprintings are also numerous.

The writers have manifested their good sense in the rejection or confutation of several fabulous circumstances which have been reported of different animals; and they seldom hazard a remark or conjecture without foundation. Yet we cannot approve of their cool allusion to the 'crude and useless deformities of nature.' In nature there are no real deformities, nor any thing which we are intitled to denominate *crude* or *useless*. The apparent defect or uselessness of certain natural objects results from our own prejudices, and from our inability to trace the connections and dependencies of a complex and extensive system.

As a specimen of the work, we extract at random the article *Serval:*

'This fierce and rapacious animal, is a native of India and Tibet; in the Linnæan system it is denominated *felis serval;* Buffon calls it, the serval, or mountain cat; but Pennant, who in his Quadrupeds, likewise, calls it the serval, makes a distinction between this and the former animal. The natives of Malabar call it the marapute, or maraputa, and by some travellers, it has been described under the name of the tiger cat.

'In a work by the French academicians, entitled "Memoires pour servir a l'Histoire des Animaux," it seems first to have been noticed by the name of the *chat pard;* and was therein described as measuring two feet and a half, from the nose to the insertion of the tail; its shape and make was very thick and strong; its upper parts were of a fox-coloured red, with the throat, breast, belly, and inside of the legs, a dun white, the body was spotted with black, those spots on the sides,

sides, belly, and legs, being rounder and more numerous than those on other parts.

' Buffon gives us the following description of this animal, from a passage in an Italian work, translated and sent to him by the Marquis de Montmirail.

" The marapute," which the Portuguese in India, call serval, is a ferocious animal, larger than a wild cat, and somewhat less than the civet, from which he differs, by having a larger and rounder head, and a kind of depression on the middle of the front.

" He resembles the panther in the colour of his hair, which is yellow on the head, back, and flanks, and white on the breast and belly, and likewise in the spots, which are distinct, equally distributed, and a little smaller than those of the panther. His eyes are extremely brilliant, his whiskers long and stiff, and his tail rather short: his toes were armed with long and hooked claws.

" He is found on the Indian mountains, where he is very seldom seen on the ground, but remains always on the trees, lurking among the branches, where he forms a nest, in which he lies in wait for birds, and other small animals, which constitute his chief nourishment. He leaps from tree to tree, as nimbly as the squirrel or the monkey, and with such address and agility, that he runs through a considerable space in an instant, appearing and disappearing alternately.

" In this state, he is extremely fierce, and yet he flies the aspect of man, unless when provoked, and particularly when his dwelling place is injured or incommoded: he then becomes exceedingly furious, darting on the offender, like the panther, seizing him by the neck or throat, and tearing him both with his teeth and talons, in a terrible manner.

" Neither captivity, nor good nor bad treatment," continues the above author, " can soften the natural ferocity of this animal."

' To the above, we might add the American serval, which the same writer, in his supplement, denominates the *chat sauvage de la Caroline*.

' This animal is a native of North America; and Pennant observes, that it has upright pointed ears, marked with two brown transverse bars. " The upper part of the body," continues he, " is of a reddish ground, and it is marked on the back with long narrow stripes; the chin is of a pure white, and the tail is annulated with black. It is about two feet and a half in length, mild and gentle in its manner, and is frequently observed to grow very fat."

' The French naturalist likewise gives us the figure of another animal of this tribe, under the appellation of *chat sauvage de la Nouvelle Espagne*, whose body is nearly four feet in length, when full grown; its general colour is of a blueish grey, speckled with a dark brown; it has small and clear eyes, coarse and stiff hair, the tail of one colour, and rather longer than that of the former.

' Buffon is of opinion that this quadruped is only a variety in the tribe, but Pennant considers it as a distinct species.

' Almost all animals of the cat kind, inhabit the most inaccessible mountains, and vast forests, where they seek safety by flight, or by climbing trees, for which nature seems to have peculiarly adapted them, by the lightness of their bodies, and the formation of their

claws; and these, as they have the advantage of eluding the pursuit of man, so they are noxious in proportion to their power of doing mischief.'

Two other short quotations may serve as samples of the anecdotes and observations with which the volumes are occasionally enlivened:

'Father Carli observes, in his history of Angola, whither he was sent for the purpose of converting the natives to Christianity, while his health was totally impaired by the raging heats of the climate, his patience exhausted by the obstinacy of the stupid inhabitants, and his provisions daily plundered without redress, amidst all his exigencies, he experienced more faithful services from the monkies of the country, than from the human inhabitants. They amused him with their vagaries, consoled him by their attachment, and obeyed his commands with readiness and fidelity. He had taught them to attend him on his walks, to guard him, when asleep, against rats and thieves, to comb his head, to fetch his wood and water, and to perform a thousand little domestic services, with more faithfulness and tractability than the natives themselves.'—

'It is worthy of remark, that the salmon can again find the spot where it has once spawned, in the same manner as the swallow knows the house where she has built her nest. This circumstance is proved by an experiment made by De Lalande, who purchased twelve salmon of the fishermen of Chateaulin, (a small town of Lower Brittany, where sometimes four thousand are caught in a season) fastened a copper ring round the tail of each, and set them at liberty again. The fishermen afterwards informed him that the first year they took five of the fish thus marked, three the second year, and the same number the third. The princes of the East, who are generally fond of fishing, frequently fasten rings of gold or silver round salmon, and again throw them into the water. It was by means of these fish, we are told, that the communication of the Caspian Sea with the Northern Ocean, and Persian Gulf, was discovered.'

We are unwilling to dismiss this publication, without recommending it as a proper and amusing companion to the young of both sexes.

Muir.

ART. VI. *Horæ Biblicæ;* Part the Second: being a connected Series of miscellaneous Notes on the Koran, the Zend-Avesta, the Vedas, the Kings, and the Eddas. Crown 8vo. pp. 148. Not sold.

IT is known to many of our readers that Mr. Butler, of Lincoln's Inn, the author of these *Biblical Hours*, is a gentleman occupied in the business of the law, who pursues theological studies for his amusement. He has displayed in this and in the former part much reading, and has endeavoured to compress

press the result of his inquiries into a narrow space. Having, in the first part, (see M. R. Vol. xxvii. N. S. p. 210.) exhibited many historical notices relative to the scriptures of the Old and New Testament, and examined various circumstances connected with the authenticity and purity of the sacred text, he now proceeds to give a concise view of the history of the several books which are accounted sacred in those parts of the world that are not converted to the Christian faith; particularly of the *Koran*, a book written some centuries subsequently to the Gospels, and the author of which has obtained singular success in making disciples. This subject merits inquiry; and the remarks which this unostentatious volume contains will serve to throw light on it. Mr. Butler considers the antient history of the countries in which the religion and empire of Mohammed took their rise, and the controversial dissentions of the Christian church at that period; both of which concurred in promoting the projects of the author of the Koran:

'If the period of the christian æra were to be mentioned, when there was least of order, least of power, least of science, and least of intercourse in Europe, it would be that century which immediately preceded, and that which immediately followed the commencement of the Hegira.

'The eastern empire still contained Greece, Thrace, Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, Africa, and a part of Italy: but it had been exhausted by a succession of foreign wars and civil dissentions; by repeated ravages of Barbarians, by oppression in the capital, extortion in the provinces, weak councils, lawless armies, and a disorderly court.

'To complete the calamity, *both the church and state, were, at the time we speak of, equally weakened by religious controversy and persecution.*—The last of these circumstances was, in a particular manner, the cause of the rapid success of Mahometanism.

'Very soon after the introduction of Christianity, a fondness for the philosophy of Plato and Pythagoras, led many to investigate the mysteries of the Trinity, and of the divinity and humanity of Jesus Christ, with too much curiosity. Praxeas maintained, that there was but one person in the Trinity, and that the Father was the same as the Jesus who was crucified. Year of Christ. 193

'The same heresy, with some modification, was adopted by Noëtus. - - - - 239

'With a similar notion of preserving the unity of the divine substance, without giving up the Trinity, Sabellius reduced the three persons of the Trinity to one and the same being, manifesting himself by two distinct operations, or energies moving from himself, called the Son and the Holy Ghost. - 257

'Arius, in avoiding the error of Sabellius, asserted Jesus Christ to be a creature drawn out of nothing, by the Father,

and subsisting by his will, but begotten before all other beings, and participating, by his Father's gift, in his essence and glory. He was condemned by the general council of Nice. - - - - - 325 Year of Christ.

'To support the consubstantiality of the Son with the Father, Apollinaris contended against Arius, that Jesus Christ had not an human soul; he was condemned by the sixth council of Rome. - 377

'In opposition to him, Theodore of Mopsuestes maintained, that Jesus Christ had a soul distinct from the word, and performed actions, which were only referrible to that soul. Without it, according to him, it would be necessary to suppose, that, the divinity suffered, the divinity increased in wisdom. - 428

'Nestorius carried the system further; he asserted the existence of two distinct persons in Christ, that one was eternal, infinite, increate; that the other originated in time, was finite, and had been created. His doctrine was condemned by the third council of Ephesus. - - - 431

'Eutyches fell into the opposite extreme, asserting, that, in Jesus Christ, the divine nature only existed; his humanity being absorbed by it, as a drop of water by the ocean. Thus it was the error of Nestorius to divide the person, the error of Eutyches to confound the two natures of Christ. The doctrine of Eutyches was condemned by the council of Chalcedon, in - - - - - 451

'In opposition to the Eutychians, some monks of Scythia asserted the proposition, "one of the Trinity has suffered for us." - - - - - 520 After Christ.

'Pope John the 2d, in a letter to the emperor Justinian, approved of the proposition, it being explained to mean, that the second person of the Trinity suffered in the flesh. - 534

'The unity of God, the Trinity of persons, being thus established in the godhead, and the two natures and unity of person being thus established in the son of God, a dispute arose on the nature of his will. Theodore, the bishop of Pharan in Arabia, asserted, and Sergius, the patriarch of Constantinople, adopted his assertion, that, in Jesus Christ, though there were two natures, there was but one will. This gave them and their adherents the name of Monothelites. Their heresy was finally condemned in the council at Rome, in - - - - - 649

'Marcian, and Leo, his immediate successor in the throne of Constantinople, enforced the decrees of the council of Chalcedon, with great rigor.

'The emperor Justinian enacted many laws against Heretics, Pagans, Jews and Samaritans, and caused them to be carried into execution with great severity. To all of them he offered the alternative of orthodoxy or exile.

'The number of those who preferred the latter was great; and the three Arabias offered them a secure retreat: to those therefore they fled.'

Various

Various parts of the Koran expressly refer to the religious controversies which, at the time of its publication, existed among Christians, and pointedly state the objections prevailing in Arabia against the Trinity and the Godhead of Christ. It is the repeated language of the Koran, "Say not there are three Gods, forbear this, it will be better for you, God is but one God."—"They are infidels who say, Verily God is Christ the son of Mary."—"They are certainly infidels, who say, God is the third of three." These passages clearly prove that Mohammed was a determined opposer of the doctrine of the Trinity; and his zeal and enthusiasm roused a numerous host to adopt his views:

'All accounts of Mahomet agree that from his earliest years, he was religiously inclined, and shewed great zeal against idolatry, and a strong wish for its extirpation. It is said, that Sergius, a Nestorian monk, remarked this disposition in him when, in his 13th year, he accompanied his father to the monastery in which Sergius resided. After his marriage, his zeal redoubled, and he gave himself up to a mystic and contemplative life. Once a year, he shut himself up for a whole month, in a cavern of a mountain, about three miles distant from Mecca, to meditate without interruption, on religious subjects. His temperance and ample charities to the poor procured him universal respect; his piety was so generally acknowledged, that a dispute arising, who should have the honour of placing the black stone in the temple of Mecca, the voice of the people unanimously deferred it to him. His mode of life could not but increase the fanaticism of an imagination, naturally ardent; at the age of 40, he publickly assumed the character of a prophet sent by God, to re-establish, in its purity, the religion of Abraham and Ismael.

'He addressed a willing audience of armed proselytes, who would follow him with fanaticism equal to his own, whose powerful onset neither the eastern nor western empire was likely to resist, whom first victories would elevate to irresistible valor and enterprize, and who would spread themselves over the world with all the zeal of missionaries, and the ambition of conquerors.'—

'And such was the success of their enterprize, that in less than a century from the commencement of the hegira, they spread the religion of Mahomet, from the Atlantic Ocean, to India and Tartary; and his successors reigned in Syria, Persia, Egypt, Africa and Spain. Since that time, they have been expelled from Spain; but have conquered the kingdoms of Visapour and Golconda in India, the islands of Cyprus and Rhodes and the Cyclades, and have made large territorial acquisitions in Tartary, Hungary and Greece.'

Mr. B. traces the history of Mohammedanism through the long period occupied by the dynastics and fortunes of the Universal Caliphs; giving, in distinct columns, the several dates, both according to the æra of the Hegira and that of the Christian world. Hence he proceeds to notice the irruption of the

Mogul Tartars under *Genghiz khan* and *Timour*, into the Asiatic territories conquered by the disciples of Mohammed; and the several attempts of the princes of Christendom to repel them, commonly called the *Crusades*.

The religious tenets and literary history of the Mohammedans are thus concisely exhibited:

'In the same manner as the word "christendom" is used as a general denomination for all the countries inhabited by the nations, who profess the religon of Christ, the word *Eslam* is a general denomination for the countries inhabited by the nations that profess the religion of Mahomet. It signifies an absolute submission of mind and body to God, and to the revelation he has made of his divine will by Mahomet, his prophet. Thus, the fundamental creed of Mahomet is described in two articles, "there is but one God, and Mahomet is the apostle of God." His precepts are reduced to four; prayer, preceded by purification as a necessary preparation, fasting, alms, and a pilgrimage, once at least in a life, to the temple of Mecca. His disciples are taught to expect a day of resurrection and general judgment: they believe the doom of infidels will be everlasting punishment, to be measured by the degree of their moral guilt and obstinacy in rejecting the evidence offered them of Eslamism; but that all believers, by their faith in God, and through the intercession of Mahomet, will be admitted to everlasting felicity; that, while the felicity of the perfect, as the saints and martyrs, will be the enjoyment of a superlative degree of intellectnal pleasure, the general body of Mussulmans will be blessed with an abundance of sensual enjoyments. They believe in God's absolute decrees, and the predetermination both of good and evil; in the existence of angels, whom they consider to be ministers of the word of God, pure and subtile spirits, propagated of fire. They believe, that, from the beginning, there has been a series of prophets; that, all of them were free from great sins and even great errors; and that six of them, Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, Jesus, and Mahomet, rising in a gradation of merit, the latter always above the former, brought new dispensations of law from heaven; that each, successively, abrogated the preceding; that many of the prophets received, from God himself, revelations in writing, of his divine will, all of which are lost except the Pentateuch, the Psalms, the Gospel and the Koran; that the three first are miserably corrupted and falsified; that the last is divinely inspired, every word, every letter of it being uncreated and incorruptible, and subsisting, through eternity, in the essence of the deity; that, God himself, by his angel Gabriel, delivered it to Mahomet his last prophet, his high priest in spiritual concerns, his supreme prince in temporals, and who, by himself or his successors, is, by the supernatural, and consequently irresistible force of his arms, to establish in every kingdom of the world, the saving doctrine of the koran. Circumcision is not mentioned in the koran; but it is practised as a divine institution, first revealed by Abraham to Mahomet. Two places they hold in particular veneration: one of them is the temple of Mecca; it contains the Cabah or square house, which has been mentioned. To the temple of Mecca every Mahometan directs his

look when he prays, and this supposed aspect of it, they call the *Kebla*. The other object of their veneration, is the temple at Medina, where the prophet preached and was buried. Such are the principal tenets and rites of the Mahometans, but the only necessary article of faith, the only article required to be professed by a Mussulman, is the unity of God, and the divine mission of Mahomet. Having pronounced the words, "I believe in one God, and in Mahomet the apostle of God," the proselyte is considered to be a perfect Mussulman. They look on unbelievers with contempt and abhorrence; but the Magians as followers of Abraham, the Jews as followers of Moses, and the Christians as followers of Christ, are ranked by them, far above polytheists, idolaters, and atheists. In opposition to those, they call the Magians, Jews, and Christians, from the written revelations they suppose to have been made to them, by Abraham, Moses, and Christ, the people of the written law.

'The early caliphs condemned the polytheists, idolaters and atheists, to the alternative of death, or the profession of Eslamism, but the people of the written law were always allowed the alternative of professing Eslamism, or purchasing liberty of conscience by paying tribute; and insensibly the last alternative was generally proposed to every enemy.

'The followers of Mahomet have ascribed to him both miracles and prophecies. His miracles have been said to amount to 3000, but he does not appear to have himself claimed a power of working miracles. The wonderful success of his arms, he urged as a proof of his divine mission, and contended, that none but God himself could produce a work, which should equal the koran, in grandeur of conception, in beauty or sublimity of doctrine, or in richness or elegance of language.'

It is justly observed that 'Mahomet appears to have taken his scripture history rather from the apocryphal books and traditions of the Jews and heterodox Christians, with whom Arabia abounded in his time, than from the canonical writings which compose the bible.'

A view is taken of the extent of the countries in which Mohammedanism is professed; concluding with the statement of this remarkable fact, 'that, generally speaking, from the commencement of the Hegira (A.D. 622.) to the present time, Mohammedanism has always been on the increase.'

Mr. B. makes full acknowlegement of his obligations to those writers who have furnished him with materials for the present disquisition; among whom he enumerates the Benedictine authors of the *Art de verifier les dates*, which he praises as 'a work of the greatest learning that appeared in the last century.' It certainly possesses a high reputation.

After the Koran, Mr. Butler inquires into the history and contents of the Zend-Avesta, the supposed Bible of the antient Persians; which, it is conjectured, contains religious

principles in their first deviation from the Patriarchal faith. We cannot, at this distance of time, ascertain how far this is really the case: but a single extract will shew that the doctrine of the Zend-Avesta is a composition of Asiatic Mythology, and of the Mosaical account, corrupted by tradition. The doctrine of Zoroaster, of two eternal independent principles,—one the cause of good, called *Ormuzd*, and the other of evil, called *Ahriman*,—figures in this system of theology, and accounts for the happiness and misery observable in the universe. While Ormuzd creates celestial Beings, Ahriman creates evil and filthy Beings, called Dews or Dwes, Peries, &c.

'With them (it is added) Ahriman attacked Ormuzd, and maintained against him, a fight of 90 days, at the end of which, Ormuzd pronounced the *Honover*, or Divine Word, and at the sound of it they fled back to their primæval darkness: then Ormuzd created *the first Ox*; it was destroyed by Ahriman; from him *Kaiomorts*, or the first man, proceeded; the Dews slew him, a tree sprung out of his seed, from which a man and woman arose, called *Meschia and Meschiane*. At first, they were pure beings, and obedient to Ormuzd: but Ahriman was envious of their happiness: to seduce them, he assumed the form of a serpent, presented them fruit, engaged them in conversation with him, and persuaded them he was the creator of the universe; they believed in him; their nature was corrupted, and their corruption infects all their posterity. Ormuzd supplies them with force sufficient to resist the attacks of Ahriman; at their decease, if the good overbalances the evil they have done, they are admitted to a paradise of spiritual and temporal delights; if their evil actions preponderate, they are condemned to unspeakable suffering: but all this is temporal; at the end of the 12,000 years from the creation of Ormuzd and Ahriman, the harmony of the universe will be re-established, and mankind restored to virtue and happiness.'

The final triumph of virtue, and the arrangement of the universe, so as ultimately to produce perfect good, is a pleasing sentiment, which appears to have been very widely diffused.

The Vedas are not dismissed without an ardent wish, on the part of Mr. Butler, to promote the study of Asiatic literature; and he recommends it to the *Merchant-Kings* of the East to apply a part of their treasures to this purpose. This idea has been adopted: but, if we are to believe certain recent communications, the establishment of a college in the East is not relished by the Directors.

Little is said of *the Kings*, the sacred book of the Chinese, because little is known; and for an account of the Edda, the reader may be referred to Mallet's Northern Antiquities.

Instead of the abrupt conclusion of this volume, we think that some general remarks and observations might have been added; by which the utility of Mr. Butler's historical researches

searches into the several books accounted sacred might have been illustrated.

In the first page, we meet with the singular expression of 'committing sheets to paper.'

Mo-y.

ART. VII. *The Satires of Decimus Junius Juvenalis.* Translated into English Verse, by the Rev. William Heath Marsh, A. M. 8vo. pp. 238. 7s. Boards. Westley. 1804.

ALL those who are acquainted with the Satires of Juvenal must be sensible of the difficulty of transfusing their force and spirit into a modern version. Persuaded of the inutility of attacking the corrupt manners and practices of antient Rome, where *omne vitium in præcipiti stetit*, with mildness of remonstrance or the gaiety of ridicule, the satirist assumed an attitude of the most determined enmity; and he frequently exposes vice with a roughness and coarseness which cannot be literally translated without offence to delicacy. On men who, according to the nervous description of a sacred writer, "*being past feeling, had given themselves over unto lasciviousness to work all uncleanness with greediness,*" gentle applications could produce no effect: but it is unnecessary now rigidly to adopt the same course; and it proves the beneficial influence of Christianity on the state of public morals, that, however we may deplore the corruptions and profligacy of the age, such a sense of decorum prevails as must impose a degree of management on every one who undertakes a version of Juvenal. This is a restraint which, though it weakens the force of the satire, must not be disregarded; since it is better to be tame, or to leave a passage altogether untranslated, than grossly to shock and offend. Mr. Marsh is entirely of this opinion; and his sentiments on this subject are so well expressed, that we shall transcribe that part of the Dedication (to his Preceptor, Mr. Carter,) which relates to this view of his undertaking:

'In speaking of the present work, as giving the whole of the original, I would only be understood as not having implicitly followed the very frequent omissions of the edition which we perused together, and which is certainly the only one that can be placed with propriety in the hands of youth. But, though I have greatly exceeded these bounds, from an anxious wish of retaining all that could possibly be retained of such an admirable writer, there are still some exceptionable passages, that I have entirely rejected; others that I have been obliged to soften; and a few, the sense of which I have even ventured to alter, rather than give offence to the ears of modesty. For these liberties, so rarely taken, I trust that I shall stand acquitted, even by the most enthusiastic admirers of Juvenal; since

though it may be considered as the general duty of a Translator faithfully to retrace the steps of his Author, and to pursue his progress without either diminution or addition, yet is our obligation greater to regard the rules of decency and virtue. It is gratifying indeed to reflect that those delineations, which, in the time of Juvenal, we must conclude were absolutely requisite to deter from vice, are no longer necessary. The horrid enormities which now appear to disfigure the pages of the Roman Bard are, fortunately for us, almost unknown; and the public would turn with abhorrence and disgust from this picture, in a modern work, as existing only in the depraved imagination of the Poet.'

Mr. Marsh speaks with so much modesty on his venturing before the public as a translator of Juvenal, so soon after the appearance of Mr. Gifford's version, that we could not suspect him of meaning to exhibit himself as that gentleman's competitor: but he assures us that he had never seen Mr. Gifford's work till his own was entirely completed; and that, on examination, he found a sufficient difference in the general manner between Mr. G.'s version and his own, to form his excuse in hazarding the present publication.

On comparing the two translations, Mr. Marsh will appear less paraphrastic than Mr. Gifford: but this is no merit in the eye of the English reader, unless explanatory notes had been subjoined. In translating the first six lines of Juvenal, Mr. G. employs ten lines in English, while in Mr. M.'s version the passage occupies no more space than the original. Till we turned to the *errata*, we accused this translator of making the next passage unnecessarily short, by omitting the line

Expectes eadem a summo, minimoque poeta,

but we there found that it had produced a couplet:

'The best and worst in this respect unite,
And to these subjects claim an equal right.'

Mr. Gifford has rendered it,

"While high and low as the mad fit invades
Bellow the same dull nonsense through the shades."

The picture which Juvenal has drawn of the masculine Mævia, who seems to have resembled a certain Yorkshire lady, loses its effect in the present translation, by the circumstances which mark her character being lost in a general description.

"*Mævia Tuscum*
Figat aprum, et nuda teneat venabula mammâ,"

is a portrait which a painter might copy: but the lines—

—'Mævia

——— ‘ Mævia hunts the boar
(Her sex's grand distinction priz'd no more,')

do not explain in what degree this lady had thrown aside the modesty of her sex. Mr. G. was more faithful, but he occupied three lines in delineating the picture which Juvenal sketched in less than one and a half;

“ When Mævia, all the woman laid aside,
Enters the lists, and to the middle bare,
Hurls at the Tuscan boar the quivering spear.”

We shall not pursue a comparison of these two translations, but shall confine our attention solely to the work before us. The passage in the first Satire, beginning with *aude aliquid*, and ending with *farrago libelli*, is thus given by Mr. Marsh:

‘ Dare boldly then, if riches thou wouldst raise,
Heap crime on crime! for Virtue pines on praise.
'Tis vice alone supplies the wealth of *most*,
Their mansions, gardens, and their plate *imbost*.
O! who can taste the tranquil bliss of life,
When the sire keeps the son's corrupted wife?
When curst espousals mark th' excess of sin,
And vice buds forth upon the callow chin?
Indignant wrath shall nature's wants supply,
And lash to action such a bard as *I*.
‘ From that far distant period, when the main
Rush'd o'er its bounds, and delug'd all the plain;
When first Deucalion to an anchor brought,
On some high cliff, his bark, and anxious sought
Propitious oracles; when stones were hurl'd
Warm with new life, replenishing the world;
What pleases, vexes, agitates mankind,
Shall, from my wand'ring muse, attention find.’

Such a line as

‘ And lash to action such a bard as *I*’

we cannot approve; and we are still less satisfied with the manner in which the very rich and full period contained in the last two lines of the original—

Quicquid agunt homines, votum, timor, ira, voluptas,
Gaudia, discursus, nostri est farrago libelli,—

is weakened in this new version.

A few lines below, in the same page, a couplet will be found which is not English; though this defect may be remedied by simply changing *but* into *the*.—Again:

‘ While Peace, Faith, Virtue, Victory, tower on high,
And Concord, *whence the storks salute the sky*,’

is

is a literal translation: but, without a note, what will the English reader understand by the words in italics?—

'Whole boars are dress'd, that amply would provide
For numerous guests:'—

these lines do not convey the idea of Juvenal's

Animal propter convivia natum,

viz. an animal created for the purpose of furnishing a feast.

The concluding couplet of the first Satire in Mr. Marsh's version is made obscure by the omission of the word *cinis*:

'Check my first wishes, and securely stray,
Along the Latin and Flamminian way.'

We recommend him to adopt something like the following alteration:

'Check my first rage, and 'mid their ashes stray,
Who skirt the Latin or Flamminian way.

In the 2d Satire, Mr. M. by rendering

Qui Curios simulant et Bacchanalia vivunt

'Sages in speech and Bacchanals in deeds,'

has succeeded better than Mr. Gifford: but we cannot pay him this compliment for the couplet in the third Satire, which corresponds with the line

Quid Romæ faciam? mentiri nescio—

since, though he has not fallen into the exact redundancy of his predecessor, he has been guilty of one equally exceptionable—

'Why should I stay at Rome? I scorn deceit,
And nonsense ever my contempt must meet.'

The beginning of the sixth Satire, which is pointedly directed against the female sex, is not unhappily executed by Mr. M. Let the reader judge:

'When Saturn rul'd as universal lord,
I can believe was Chastity ador'd;
When rude-built huts receiv'd, without parade,
Gods, men, and herds, beneath one common shade;
While rustic house-wives, on bleak mountains bred,
With leaves and skins adorn'd the nuptial bed.
O how unlike to Cynthia, prais'd of late!
Or Lesbia weeping at her sparrow's fate.
Babes strong and vig'rous claim'd parental care;
Alike unpolish'd liv'd the simple pair.
Diff'rent were men while Nature yet was young,
When from cleft oaks, or clay, at first they sprung:

Much,

Much, or at least some modesty appear'd,
When Jove, but beardless Jove, the sceptre rear'd
When yet unperjur'd were the sons of Greece ;
When unsuspecting Innocence in peace
Repos'd her head; ere guards or bolts were known,
None seiz'd another's right, or fear'd to lose his own.
At length Astræa, of celestial birth,
Withdrew, by slow degrees, her smiles from earth;
Shock'd at our crimes, she sought her ancient reign,
And her pure sister follow'd in her train.'

Of all the pieces of Juvenal, his tenth Satire possesses the greatest merit; and we never peruse it without admiration of the strong good sense of the writer, and of the admirable moral lesson with which it concludes. It is impossible to do full justice to this part of the original, but Mr. Marsh has tolerably expressed the sense. With this passage our extracts must conclude:

' Must we then wish for nothing?—My advice
Would leave the Gods to judge what best suffice
Our num'rous wants, for they alone can know
From what pure fount life's real blessings flow.
For transient joys substantial good is giv'n:
Dearer than to himself is man to heav'n.
We, urg'd by passion, by blind impulse led,
Implore the Gods to bless the nuptial bed:
They must determine whether babes or wife
Will prove the comfort, or the bane of life.
' But that our pray'rs may still to something tend,
That we may supplicate, and not offend,
To this alone be our requests confin'd:
" Vouchsafe us health of body, peace of mind;
A dauntless soul that looks without dismay
On death, that sees existence glide away,
Grateful to nature; can endure, refrain,
Placid, nor too solicitous of gain;
The toils of Hercules would rather court,
Than such love-banquets and unmanly sport,
As pleas'd th' Assyrian king." I thus advise—
The path to happiness thro' virtue lies.
Did Prudence o'er our erring race preside,
Blest might we live, and need no other guide;
But thee, O Fortune! to the skies we raise,
Extol thy pow'r, and celebrate thy praise.'

Though Mr. M. deems no apology necessary for the omission of notes and illustrations, we cannot be of his opinion; since the expressions of a classical writer are often unintelligible without explanation.

Mo-y.

ART.

ART VIII. *Mémoires du Comte Joseph de Puisaye, &c.; i. e.* Memoirs of Count Joseph de Puisaye, Lieutenant-General, &c., forming a History of the French Royalist Party during the late Revolution. Vols. I. and II. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Budd, &c. London.

IT has been sometimes said that no delinquent ever published an account of his life without convicting himself; and whether the position be *universally* true or not, it must be granted that it has been verified in a great many instances. Grave suspicions, it is well known, have been entertained respecting the author and subject of these memoirs; and the existence of them is not only admitted in the work itself, but its professed object is to remove them by the plain exposure of the transactions in which M. de Puisaye was concerned. He explicitly avows that he is out of favour with Louis XVIII. and his family, and obnoxious to his council; and he even goes so far as to say that, in the case of that Prince's restoration, (which he thinks is by no means an improbable event, as a revolution of twenty-four hours may effect it,) he should not return to his native country, but remain still a subject of his Britannic Majesty.

Assuming the principle above laid down, the reader may be curious to learn what is the judgment which we have formed of this suitor at the bar of the public. If such a wish exists in any breast, we are not able at present satisfactorily to gratify it, because the subject is not fully before us; these volumes forming only a part of the writer's memoirs, leaving him at the moment of his escape to England, and at an instant short of that period to which the most serious of the accusations preferred against him belong. As far as the account of his conduct extends, however, we see no ground for impeaching it. If we do not subscribe to all his principles, nor coincide in all his views, we are not prepared to condemn nor even to censure them. He represents himself as warmly attached to his sovereign, and firmly devoted to the welfare and interests of his country; and we do not see in his public acts, at least such of them as are stated here, aught that is inconsistent with these respectable claims. In our judgment, he might be faithful to his king without being guilty of extremes, without being a bigot to the former system, and without partaking in the puerile and sottish delusions of Coblentz. We do not regard his loyalty as questionable because he did not hastily fly from his natal soil, nor attempt to incite foreign powers to coerce and cashier his countrymen; and we are certainly little inclined to class him with the rebellious because he thought that reforms consistent with the nature of the French monarchy

were

were eligible, and because in other circumstances he conceived that great concessions on the part of the king were become expedient, as being unavoidable. Neither should we represent him as tinctured with Jacobinism, because he may think that the royal return should be a matter of compromise, that the monarch should not hesitate to signify his readiness to adopt an improved plan of government, to abandon antient prejudices, and to be influenced by actual circumstances; nor do we regard him as impious, disloyal, and unworthy of confidence, because he may think that there were men of ability and good intentions in all the parties. If we cannot approve of insurrection at the early period in which he states that he was digesting plans for setting it on foot, it is but justice to him to add that we do not find him in arms till a monster had griped the sceptre, against whom it surely could be no civil nor moral offence to rebel.

Having thus frankly stated our sentiments with regard to M. de Puisaye, on the above points we shall take leave to observe that we should have preferred the narrative, and have viewed the author with more confidence, if it had been less frequently interrupted by professions of candour, and by *diatribes* in favour of liberality; if it had been more brief and direct; and if it had been submitted at once complete to the world. Why all this preliminary parrying? Why is the pulse of Europe, as it were, to be previously felt? Why does the tale stop short at the part which is most interesting, and which chiefly affects the character of the author? All this raises in the mind suspicions of management which a strait-forward line of conduct does not require. Yet far be it from us to infer a bad heart, where perhaps only the head has been injudicious. If the matter be ever laid fully before us, we shall honestly report our final sentiments with regard to it, without fear or bias; and in the mean time, we shall proceed to discuss the present volumes, in the point of view in which they are chiefly interesting to the English reader; namely, as they throw light on a period of as high import as any that is to be found in history. In this respect, they have very considerable claims to attention, since they abound in facts and observations made by a person of attainments and talents, who was a leading actor in the scenes which he delineates.

M. de Puisaye ascribes the failure of the royalist cause to the emigration, to the weak councils of the Princes, to their error in placing reliance on foreign potentates, to the premature commencement of the war, and to the selfish and narrow policy on which it was conducted.—We agree with him in regarding the emigration as a most unfortunate and impolitic measure;

measure; and many of his observations on this subject are eminently just: but there is a fallacy in the reasoning which infers from the success of the nobles in the western departments, that, if persons of this class had remained in all the other parts of the kingdom, the same results would have attended their efforts. He is, we believe, better founded in stating the bigoted attachment of all the members of the Bourbon family to the antient order of things; since universal report, the style of their public instruments, and their silence respecting any disposition to compromise, or to conform to circumstances, prove that this charge has not been groundlessly made.

M. de Calonne, we are told, quitted ease and affluence, gave his services to the princes, and laid the whole of his fortune at their feet: but he was too sincere and enlightened long to retain his situation near them; and, through the intrigues of frivolous courtiers, he was speedily turned adrift on the world, in a state of absolute beggary. When Monsieur (now Louis XVIII.) held his court at Coblentz, scarcely a man in his suite was capable of acting in the difficult circumstances to which the royal interests were reduced; his retainers were persons of the most insignificant kind, as incapable of just reflection as of energetic conduct; and they regarded the awful enterprize in which they were about to embark, and which was to decide their fortune for ever, as a hunting party, or as a journey to Fontainebleau or Compiégne. In their meetings, it was said that the subjection of France would prove at most the work of one campaign: that the regiments of the line which they had commanded would, at the very sight of them, lay down their arms; and that the republican forces, reduced to raw artisans and peasants, would furnish only pursuit without battles, or victories without glory. At an early period, they considered themselves as sufficient in number to reduce the whole kingdom, and regarded new-comers with jealousy. Those whom their private affairs had occasioned to arrive late were received with coldness, and with difficulty acknowleged; and eight days priority on the list of emigration was considered as a proof of superior merit;—a line of conduct which drove back some men of the highest merit, to join the armies of the *Committee of Public Safety*. All the intrigues of a court were carried on among their attendants; and their ears were as much fenced against the entrance of truth, as those of the most powerful monarch in the days of his highest prosperity. Men, whose sole merit consisted in courtly address, in soft, artful, and insinuating speeches, and in consuming a share of the scanty allowance of the Princes, employed themselves successfully in prejudicing the minds of these high personages against those who

who were sacrificing their fortunes, and endangering their lives, in favour of the royal cause. It was, says the author, to the interposition of these persons between the Princes and their adherents in the interior, that we are to ascribe the gradual decline and the final extinction of their party in France.—We must observe, however, that this abject state of the Bourbon interest does not very well agree with the admission made by the author, of the probable restoration of Louis XVIII.; and indeed the weakness of the royal councils, the prejudices by which they are swayed, and the state of society and the distribution of property at present existing in France, seem to place insurmountable obstacles to this termination of the contest.

M. de Puisaye maintains that the premature commencement of the war proved another cause of the failure of the royalists. He does not, with many others, deny the right of foreign states to wage war on France on account of its internal affairs; he even contends for it: but it is with the season of exercising it that he finds fault. He thinks that the weakness of the government of France had no doubt been considered, in the adjustment of the balance under which Europe found tranquillity: but this government could not be exchanged for another, without its becoming incumbent on all provident states to watch the event, and to interfere to preclude the interruption of the general tranquillity which it was likely to occasion. In such an emergency, a defensive league is the measure which he recommends; and he strongly deprecates one that is offensive in the first instance, clearly displaying the inconveniences that arose from that which caused the revolutionary war. An offensive foreign war strengthened the authority of those who were in possession of power, and confounded their cause with that of the country; while it furnished millions of soldiers, whose numbers and irregular impetuosity supplied the want of skill and experience. Had a defensive plan been followed, the evil would gradually have consumed itself in its own focus; contagion would have spread less; the contests in the interior would have been more general and more animated; and if the mischief would not, as in England, have thus come to an end, it would have been easy for a powerful foreign confederacy to have given the desirable turn to affairs. He contends that it was to be foreseen that a war, so prematurely begun as was that between the coalesced powers and France, would terminate, as it actually did, in being beneficial to the Jacobins, and most prejudicial to the general interests of Europe. Not only, he maintains, was the war too much precipitated, but it was conducted on principles which must infallibly render it unsuccessful. The parties to the general league were influenced by

individual views, instead of being actuated by a regard to the welfare of the European community. When the French nation, he tells us, saw that the object of the powers in arms against it was to strip it of provinces, to seize its colonies, to reduce it to insignificance, or even to annihilate it as a state; when it beheld the Imperial eagle waving over the ramparts of Quesnoy, Valenciennes, and Condé; when it was agreed in a council, consisting of members belonging to various nations, to dismantle the harbour and to burn the shipping in the road of Toulon: when they heard Wurmser invite the inhabitants of Alsace to share in the happiness of becoming Germans; when it found the kings at war so indifferent to its internal interests, as to omit the precaution of binding by an oath the prisoners released from the captured fortresses, not to fight against the royalists of the western departments;—it was natural that it should lose all confidence in them, and unite as one man to resist their attacks; that it should turn its attention from temporary sufferings, however keen and poignant, to a more imminent and lasting danger; that it should endure painful wounds, to save its existence; that it should resolve to suffer within, in order to protect itself from being crushed from without; that it should submit to the yoke of a Robespierre, rather than see its territory the prey of foreign violence.

Satisfied, however, that it had become the duty of all good Frenchmen to resist by force the Jacobin faction, when it could be done with safety and effect, M. de Puisaye had retired to his own province to digest and mature plans, in order to carry his scheme into execution. While thus employed, the departmental war broke out. It was utterly foreign from his intentions to have made a common cause with the proscribed deputies: but de Wimpffen having precipitately espoused their party, his friendship for and connection with that General forced him to join in that insurrection. His plans being thus defeated, and the opposition to the convention having proved unsuccessful, he was advised to consult his safety by retiring into Brittany. Previously to his arrival in that province, the Marquis de Rouarie, availing himself of the discontents which religious persecution had universally excited, had organized an insurrection which would have extended over all its parts. This nobleman held his command from the French Princes; and they took their directions from the coalesced powers, with regard to the instructions which they transmitted to Brittany. Having received the commands of his superiors to raise the whole province on a certain day, he formed his measures accordingly, and the necessary steps were adopted to ensure a general rising of the royalists. A very little while before the day fixed, or-

ders

ders came to defer his muster: but the time would not allow of his sending notice to all stations; partial risings therefore took place; the vigilance of the Convention was roused; and its wonted vengeance was inflicted. The injury thus done to the royal cause was, in the author's opinion, such as exceeded all calculation. Had Rouarie been allowed to act without control, the Jacobins would have been expelled for ever, and the province rendered incapable of being reduced by any force which the Convention could send against it. Such was the terror produced by the executions and tortures which followed the discovery of Rouarie's plans, that the number of Bretons who lived on the surface of the earth was inferior to that of those who sought concealment within its bowels. Nine hundred in the town of Rennes alone, who were supposed to have emigrated, remained invisible, concealed in the most incommodious and confined places, and were harboured by their friends at the imminent risk of their own lives. These unhappy beings only quitted their retreats for a few moments during the night, in order to take the air and some nourishment, which consisted merely of the pittance which the family could spare from its necessities, as the members of each were inscribed on the outer door; and if any one family laid in more provisions than seemed adequate to its wants, this was sure to be observed, and a domiciliary visit was the consequence.

Though the horrors committed by the agents of the Convention had stunned the inhabitants of this ill-fated province, the unceasing persecutions under which they suffered made them again resolve on resistance; and M. de Puisaye, who now resided in the midst of them, was invited to be their leader; which situation he accepted. If the new commander was less thwarted by foreign control than his predecessor, his authority was less extensive, and the various bodies of insurgents acted independently. Had these all been subjected to his command, and obedient to his orders, he assures us that Brittany might still, with the greatest ease, have been severed for ever from the conventional domination. It was to the want of a supreme command that we are to ascribe the massacre of Machecoul, the neglect of the Vendéean army to seize the whole of Upper Brittany, its fatal course towards Mans, and its subsequent ill-judged march into Normandy; and it was this want of concert that rendered ineffectual the matchless exertions of the insurgents of the western departments. The whole of the account here given confirms the notion generally entertained, that if one of the Princes of the blood, or a person of great authority commissioned by them, had taken the command in

the western departments, a most serious if not a fatal blow to Jacobin ascendancy might have been struck.

The author paints in very favourable colours the manners and dispositions of the inhabitants of the insurgent provinces. They did not prove refractory till goaded by incessant persecution; and their resistance did not assume the appearance of being frantic, till every species of horror had been practised among them, till all the arts of torture had been exhausted on them. He repels the charges of cruelty and pillage circulated by their enemies, and draws a flattering picture of the state of society which prevailed among them.

'La Vendée (he says) will live while there is any recollection of the revolution. Its well-meant, disinterested, and heroic exertions will be set againt those atrocities for which France will have occasion long to blush. I shall not attempt to write its history. I leave to the accurate General Beauvois, and to the eloquent Abbé Bernier, the task of tracing facts which bear the impression of their talents and their courage. Let those who have survived so many intrepid defenders of their liberty, of their religion, and of their laws, substitute truth for falsehoods, which have imposed on the present generation. Let their pens inform future generations that on one day, at the same hour, on all the points of Poitou and Anjou, all the inhabitants rose at once, without any other impulse than that of their own feelings, without any other object than justice, without any other guide than their courage, without any other weapons than their own hands! Let them relate how these simple unsophisticated persons overturned all that was opposed to them, rendered themselves masters of all the posts, towns, depôts, and magazines, and of an immense artillery! Let them relate how in six weeks they snatched more than one hundred thousand muskets from the hands of soldiers sent to fight with them; how they gained whole legions to their cause by their moderation and clemency, and in a short time banished every trace of pretended republicanism from their territory. Let them celebrate the first chiefs of this people, and represent how Stoflet and Catilineau, born in humble life, shewed themselves worthy of the highest rank. Let them rescue the names of d'Elbée, of Bonchamps, of Escure, of La Roche Jacquelin, and of so many others, from beneath heaps of victims, commit them to the hands of history, and assign them the places which their virtues claim for them. Let them not forget to record this noble trait of Bonchamps, who on the bed of death, sinking under his wounds, on learning that a ferocious enemy had cut the throats of all his men whom they had taken prisoners, yet ordered, conjured, supplicated, and prevailed, that reprisals should not be made on ten thousand soldiers of the Convention, but that they should be restored to their families. Will it be believed that these wretches, on being liberated, and transported over the Loire, finding some artillery there, fired grape shot on their deliverers! Let them be told how each success of the allies became

fatal

fatal to the royalists, in letting loose on them armies of prisoners, who, bound by oaths not to fight against the coalesced kings, were placed under no tie which was to hinder them from carrying fire and sword into the heart of those provinces which had remained faithful to their own king. They will also have to relate the painful truth, that the best of causes, and the assemblage of prodigious means to ensure its success, must inevitably fail, while the general interest remains too weak to silence the passions of individuals, and to arrest the intrigues to which they give rise.'

Many original traits of the revolution, and ingenious reflections on its progress, occur in the course of these volumes, of which our limits will not allow us to take notice, but which cannot fail highly to interest the intelligent reader. Jo.

ART. IX. *The Costume of the Russian Empire*, illustrated by a Series of Seventy-three Engravings. With Descriptions in English and French. Imperial 4to. 8l. 8s. Boards. Miller.

OF the splendid and very expensive publications, to the series of which this volume belongs, we have already noticed the *Costume of China*, and the *Costume of Turkey* *; and as this is exactly on the same plan, we shall pursue the method which we formerly adopted, in preparing an account of it. In one respect, this collection of engravings has an advantage over its predecessors; since the numerous nations and tribes, of which the vast Russian empire is composed, present a wider field of variety both in character and costume than Turkey or even China. We have seen the original Russian publication brought to this country by Mr. Hatchett, from which the plates before us are professedly copied; and having attentively compared them, we can bear testimony to the general fidelity of the artist employed by the publisher: but we regret that the landscape in the Russian plates was not also introduced, because it served to relieve the nakedness of the figures. We remarked, moreover, that a sufficient attention had not always been paid to the attitudes and countenances of the originals: since some of these characters, in their face and air, more resemble individuals whom we may meet in the streets of London, than such as must be encountered among the rude and savage barbarians of the Czar's dominions. The Russian work contains 95 plates, of which only 73 are here copied: but, as it is intimated in the preface, none of any consequence are omitted, excepting those of an Armenian and his wife, (for which a sufficient reason is assigned,) the others being merely duplicates of the same figures in different attitudes. No de-

* See M. R. Vols. xxxiii. N. S. p. 354. and xxxix. p. 276.

scriptions accompanied the plates as they were published at Petersburgh *, but the title of each is briefly given at the bottom in Russian, German and French. To whom the English public is indebted for the present elucidations, we are not informed: but we are assured that they 'have been derived from the most authentic sources, more particularly from Professor Müller's *Description de toutes les Nations de l'Empire de Russie—Voyage en Sibérie, par D'Auteroche—Description de Kamtshatka, par M. Kracheninnikow*—Pleschüf's Survey of the Russian Empire—Saür's Account of Commodore Billing's Expedition to the northern parts of Russia, &c. &c. as well as from information procured from several gentlemen, who have been resident for some time in different parts of that empire.' If the names of these *several* gentlemen had been subjoined, they would probably have given a sanction to this department of the publication.

An observation is made with relation to the vastness of the region, over which the different characters here exhibited are scattered; and, as it forms a proper introduction, we shall transcribe it:

'The Russian Empire is of an extent unknown to other modern nations, and hardly equalled by that of the Romans in the summit of their power. It embraces within its limits, nations the most various, with countries and climates the most opposite. Its extent from North to South is fifty degrees of latitude, *if we reckon to the North pole*, while its length from west to east is more than one hundred and seventy degrees of longitude. It touches the Frozen Ocean of the north, and borders on the warm climates of Persia, Japan and China, on the south. It occupies more than a seventh part of the known continent, and almost a twenty-sixth part of the whole globe.'

In mere extent, the Russian Empire makes a great figure: but of what frozen and uninhabited wastes does a great portion of it consist? and of what moment is it to reckon territory extending to the North Pole? The fact is that the population of this empire is small, compared with its geographical surface, and is composed of materials which are incapable of being amalgamated and formed into one whole. A list of the plates, which we shall in part copy, will serve to impress the reader with this conviction. A Laplander—A Peasant of Finland—A Woman of Esthonia—A female Peasant of Ingria—A Tcheremhisian Woman—A Tchouvashian Female—A female Mordvine—A Votiakian Woman—An Ostiak in his

* They were begun in 1776 and finished in 1779, under the care and at the expence of C. W. Müller, at the desire of the late Empress, and were to be illustrated by the separate work hereafter mentioned, which the Professor did not live to complete.

Hunting-

Hunting-Dress (it should have been added, hunting the Ermine) A Tartar of Kazan—A female Tartar of the Nagai Tribe—A Kabardinian—A Boukharian of Siberia—A Bashkirian Woman—A Mestcherakian Woman—A Barabinzian Girl—A Kirghi, on horseback—A female Katchintzian Tartar—A female Schaman—A female Tartar of the Tribe of Teleonti—A Yakouti Tartar—A Samoyed—A Tungoose—An Inhabitant of Kamtshatka, in his Winter-Dress—A Schaman of Kamtshatka—A Koriak—An Aleutian—A Kurilian—A Kalmuk—A female Bratzkiye—A Mongole Priest or Lama—A Merchant of Kalouga—A married Woman of Waldai—A Russian Peasant. Some of these tribes can scarcely be ranked in the class of civilized beings; and the dominion of the Czar over them is little more than nominal.

We shall transcribe some of the descriptions which accompany the plates, as we did in noticing the preceding works of the same nature.

'*An Ostiak of the* (river) *Obe.*—Before the Russians conquered Siberia, it was under the dominion of the Tartars, who gave the name of Ouschtaik, signifying savage, to the nations, who inhabit it, as a mark of their contempt: hence they were called Ostiaki. The Ostiaks are divided into two branches; those who live in the vicinity of the river Obe, and those who are established about the Obdor and Berezof. The Ostiaki are the most numerous nations of Siberia, where the population, on account of the rigour of the climate, is not very great. These people seldom exceed the middle size, and *are not remarkable for their beauty* *; their complexion is yellowish, and their hair generally a deep red, yet they are not ill made. They are in a state of great barbarism, and get their living chiefly by hunting and fishing, as none of them cultivate the soil. They have neither horses, *beasts* (oxen), nor sheep; their live stock consists of rein-deer, of which some have upwards of two hundred; they employ them in draught. Their dress is generally formed of the skins of different animals and furs. They wear short trowsers; their stockings are made of skin, which go all over the feet, and serve them for boots; which they strengthen, by placing the skin double for the sole. They have a sort of jacket next their skin, and over all they put a long coat, with close sleeves, which has a hood that entirely covers their head, and only leaves out the face; and in very cold weather they even wear another over this.'

'*A female Schaman.*—The numerous Pagan nations who inhabit the vast extent of the Russian Empire, are distinguished by three distinct kinds of idolatry: those who profess Schamanism, those who

* Yet in plate 20, representing a female Ostiak in a veil, which in the Russian plate completely obscures the features, the English copier has not only rendered the whole countenance visible, but has made it resemble a beautiful English female.—*Rev.*

are followers of the Lama, and those under the government of the Brahmins. The first of these sects, with its various branches, is by far the most numerous, as well as the most ancient, and is in fact the foundation of the other two, and also the multitude of lesser sects, into which Paganism branches. Among the Russian nations, however, Schamanism, from various causes, is now become a mass of unintelligible contradictions, idolatrous absurdities, and the grossest superstitions. In every part of the empire, where Schamanism prevails, the women are regarded as an inferior race of beings; the men believe them to have been created merely for sensual gratification, for preserving the population of the earth, and for domestic duties; their treatment of them is consequently very severe, and their opinion of them made up of contempt and neglect. Notwithstanding all this, the women are admitted into the religious orders, and become priestesses, who are as much venerated as the priests themselves, and have equal power. The people suppose that particular individuals are appointed by the Deity for this office; and if a new born child is subject to cramps, convulsions, and many other diseases, they consider it as peculiarly fitted for religious duties. Both the priests and priestesses are taken from the mass of the people, and are not distinguished from the rest, but by their singular mode of dress, and a more extended acquaintance with the tenets of their religion. They are neither enjoined celibacy nor any peculiar mode of living; nor have they a sufficient income, on which to live, without following the occupations of the other inhabitants. The knowledge, however, which even the best instructed have of their religion, is not much; it is frequently obscure, imperfect, and contradictory. The different nations, where Schamanism prevails, have different idolatrous ceremonies; and the Schamans, or priests, even among the same nations, sometimes differ in their various ceremonies. Of these ceremonies it is impossible, in a work of this nature, to enter into the detail.'

'*A female Schaman, shewing the back part of her Dress.*—The Schamans dress themselves in the most fantastic and grotesque manner, under the idea, that they by these means make themselves agreeable to God, and formidable to men; and on this account, their whole endeavour is to surpass each other in singularity. Their dress also differs very much according to the *nations they are of.* The present plate, as well as the last, exhibits a female Schaman, or priestess, of the Katchintzi tribe, of the district of Kraynoyarsk. Their dress is distinguished by various idolatrous ornaments made of plates of iron, of the claws of birds, of stripes of different cloths and furs, and skins of animals; while their caps are generally bordered with the skin of the lynx, and a plume of owls' feathers. A sort of tamborine is the constant companion of the Schamans; it is made of wood and covered on one side with skin, on the other side a bar runs across, by which they hold it; this skin is frequently covered with hieroglyphic characters, sometimes with the forms of idols or different animals. The instrument with which they strike the tamborine is merely made of a piece of wood, and covered with the skin of a hare with the fur on, or of some other similar animal. To this magical instrument they attribute very great power, and pretend that they can, by beating upon it,

cause

cause spirits (in which they believe) to appear or disappear at pleasure. The principles of Schamanism are chiefly as follow: they believe in one God, the creator of every thing, whom the different nations call by different names; a number of inferior gods govern the world, chiefly according to their own wills, although they are all subordinate to the Deity. All the celestial bodies are divinities as well as some terrestrial objects, such as fire, water, mountains, &c. There are also evil deities of whom there is a supreme, who is next to God in power: these live in rivers, forests, mountains, &c. &c. Their sole delight is in tormenting mankind. The people are persuaded, that the gods appear to their Schamans under different shapes, but particularly in the form of a bear; for which animal they have a great respect. They believe in a state after death, but their ideas of it are strange and ridiculous. To the good deities, which are represented under various idolatrous forms, they offer sacrifices and ayers, which they are sure will be attended to. In spite, however, of all the absurdities in Schamanism, an attentive inquirer may perceive some similarity to the Mosaic religion. The sacred fires, the oblations, the adorations, the opinions concerning women, and many other tenets of the Schamans, have perhaps been borrowed from the religion of the Jews.'

'*An Aleutian.*—From Cape Lopatka, the most southern point of Kamtshatka, there runs a chain of islands towards the north-east, which terminate near the coast of America: these are called the Aleutan isles, or by the Russians, Aleoutskie. They have each of them a different name, which it is not necessary to enumerate; the one most known to us, from the discoveries of Captain Cook, is Oonolashka, which lies almost close to the American continent. Not much is known of the manners and customs of the inhabitants of these islands. They are now almost all tributary to the Russians, of whose exactions and hard usage they sometimes complain very bitterly. Their external character and appearance differ very much from the inhabitants of the more southern islands, the Kurilians, nor are they so mild and civilized in their manners. These children of nature live in the most independent state with respect to each other; they acknowledge no chief or superior. Their whole attention is occupied with the present moment; they forget the past, and do not regard the future: nor in general have the different islands much connection or intercourse with each other, but for the purpose of exchange of commodities. They must, however, be considered as ingenious, as appears from their bows and arrows, their canoes or baidars, and even their dress, which consists of one piece variously ornamented. Still they are not so clever as the Kurilians. When the heat of their short summers will allow of it, they frequently appear, men, women and children, entirely naked, having no idea of impropriety or shame attached to it; and this is much more frequently the case in their cabins, where they do not suffer from the cold.'

This very cheap and truly paradisaical Costume is not represented in the plate: but the Aleutian is decently habited quite down to his toes.

The style of these descriptions is often bald and incorrect; as for instance, *fer blanc* is translated '*white iron*' instead of tin; 'little offspring,' for few offspring, 'Nova *Zemlia*' for Nova Zembla, &c. In the account of the Tschutski, who inhabit the north-eastern promontory of Siberia, we are informed that 'their summer is short, and during part of it the sun never sets, but yet never shines with meridian and southern lustre.' The French description is much more perspicuous: '*Le soleil ne se couche jamais, mais il n'y brille pas du même éclat que sous la ligne, et dans les pays méridionaux.*'

This elegant work is gratefully dedicated to Mr. Charles Hatchett, so well known in the annals of chemical and mineralogical science, for having liberally supplied the original whence it has been formed.

The *Costume of Austria* has also been published, and we propose to speak of it in our next Number.

Moy.

ART. X. *Correspondence in a Series of Letters between a Gentleman in Berlin and a Person of Distinction in London,* from August 1803, to June 1804. 8vo. pp. 190. 5s. Boards. Dresden printed. Sold by Budd, &c. London.

IT appears to us that this publication may be ascribed to the same source with the *Plan of National Improvement*, and the *Sketches of the Strength of France and Russia*, which we lately recommended to the attention of our readers. (Rev. Vol. xlii. pp. 306. and 381.) On the present occasion, the writer hazards opinions on our internal affairs, on our public characters, and on our external policy, of which we deem ourselves more competent to form a judgment than of his ~~former~~ preceding topics; and though we differ from him on several of these points, we still continue to respect his information, and to applaud his patriotism. As before, however, we shall nearly abstain from remarks, in order to communicate the fuller portion of the interesting matter which is here presented to us.

The writer of the preface, who professes to be a different person from the author, states that the latter 'lays it down as a principle, that until the dominion of France be confined within the limits of the late monarchy, Great Britain cannot enjoy peace. It is his opinion, that if the entire independence of Holland and Spain be not secured, the French project to subjugate the British kingdoms will never be abandoned. He is not sanguine that the present quarrel will produce any thing very important to either party; he calls this the second Punic war, and predicts that the third is not far distant, that it will be

be a terrible conflict and will finally decide the contest.' The preparations, which he recommends to be made for the above awful struggle, are such as would render the intervening peace a mere cessation of hostilities.

If it be humiliating, it may at the same time be profitable, for us to learn this author's sentiments on the state of political information among us; which he specifies by way of introducing his opinion on the conduct of a Northern Potentate, which has been very much a topic of discussion in this country:

'With respect to the policy of the king of Prussia, in suffering a French army to surround the frontiers of his dominions from Anspach by Wessel to Lubeck, it will be, I am afraid, on my part labour lost to offer you, an English politician, any opinion whatever. Although, of all the people in Europe, the English are the least acquainted with the powers and politics of other states, yet, such is your mania for political reasoning and dogmatical argument, that you will neither allow to other governments the capacity to care for their own interests, nor the honesty to maintain their engagements with their neighbours. Be pleased to know Sir! that to account for the conduct of the king of Prussia upon this occasion, you must be acquainted with the internal strength of the Prussian monarchy; and likewise with the political relationships and future prospects of that government.'

Bonaparte, he observes, invaded Hanover without the knowlege, and contrary to the expectation, of the Court of Berlin; and he says that the king of Prussia never enters into a war unless he can discover that it will have a favourable termination. He next enumerates the grounds of the mutual interest which unites Prussia and France; the former is weaker than is generally imagined; and it cannot exist without the protection of its present ally, whose support it engages, because its forces would serve as an *avant garde* in the case of a war with Russia. If the declaimers against the conduct of Frederic IV. would peruse the curious and sensible observations before us, they would, we believe, discover their error, and prefer silence to the rant in which they have so long indulged. It is here said to have been the plan of the Great Frederic, to extend the dominion of the House of Brandenburg from the Vistula, by the Rhine, to the Texel and Cuxhaven; and the author does not seem to be hostile to this project.

The object of Russia, we are told, from the time of Peter the Great to the present moment, has uniformly been to obtain a dictatorial influence in the politics of Europe. Its cabinet feels no partiality for the British; and the respect in which they were held was in a great measure destroyed by the interferences in favour of Turkey and Poland, and by the attempt to detach Denmark from its interests: but its policy dictates the

the obstruction of France in her hostility against Great Britain, and in her attempts to attain a naval preponderancy. The author admits that Russia would gladly effect a peace between the belligerent powers, but he is careful to prevent us from regarding this as a consolatory idea:

'Faithful to her system of universal influence, and which the powers of that empire render a natural system to Russia, the court of Petersburgh must endeavour to maintain between Great Britain and France, an equipoise of power; or a constant rivalry. The consequence of that rivalry enables Russia to pursue her own projects unmolested; and it gives to the court of Petersburgh such an ascendancy in the politics of Europe, that you see the Russian ministry assume the part of dictatorial mediator upon every occasion which appears to that cabinet, as in anywise calculated to extend the influence or dominion of the Russian empire. Upon this principle, but it can only be on this principle, Russia may no doubt wish to bring about the re-establishment of peace before any blow shall be struck that can give a superiority to either of the belligerent parties. Should Alexander be able to arrange another peace upon the basis of that of Amiens, or, similar to his act de mediation at Ratisbon, the enormous establishments which Great Britain and France will be obliged to keep up, and the state of uncertainty, in which both nations will be left, must inevitably, sooner or latter, ruin the finances, and destroy the national industry, of both countries.'

The following extract will enable the reader to estimate the consideration in which we were lately held at Petersburgh:

''The influence of the British government at the court of Petersburgh has long been upon the decline. Your very inconsequent interference in favour of Sweden and Turkey during the last war between Russia and these powers, irritated the late empress and diminished her respect for the English nation.—The familiarity with which certain of your public men affected to treat Paul I, and the expedition to Holland, detached that prince from your interests, and made him your enemy.—After the battle of Copenhagen, a British minister, under the pretext of wishing to settle your differences with that court, but in reality to create a distrust and coolness between Denmark and Russia, and thereby dissever the northern league, induced the Danish secretary of state, Count Bernstorff, to come over in an extraordinary official capacity to London; this ill contrived artifice Alexander saw through, and he took the first opportunity that occurred to manifest his disapprobation of it; as Mr. Garlick and Lord St. Helen's can testify. These ministers had the mortification to see, upon all public occasions, a decided precedence expressly given by the emperor himself to Duroc, Bonaparte's aide-de-camp. I shall only notice here one particular circumstance which created much speculation, and not a little pleasantry, in the diplomatic circles at Petersburgh; viz, shortly after Lord St. Helen's arrival in that capital, his Lordship gave a grand dinner to his suite, and invited several Russian officers, on board of the Latona frigate which brought him out. On the day appointed

appointed by the British embassador, for his grand entertainment, as if to exhibit to the world a marked deference for the First Consul of the French republic, His Imperial Majesty ordered a martial fête to be given, and a flottilla of Russian gallies and gunboats to manœuvre for the Consul's messenger Duroc on the opposite side of Cronstadt haven, almost under the guns of the British frigate: As it is natural to be supposed, the principal Russian officers attended the emperor and Bonaparte's Prefect du Palais. It may be, that Alexander had on this occasion no particular design; allowing that to be the case, and that the emperor's fête was accidental, yet the singularity of the circumstance (with perhaps some other trifling matters) deprived his Lordship of that consideration which a British minister at the court of Russia ought always to enjoy. How far the brave mariner, whom you have since that time metamorphosed into an embassador, will be able to recover your influence in the speculative court of Petersburgh, a very little time will now determine.'

The author may be said to reprobate, in guarded terms, the blockade of the Elbe and Weser. It is, he says, of advantage to Prussia, as it favours the traffic along the Oder to the Baltic, while it adds a million to the expence of the transit of British goods; and it may induce the powers of the continent to devise expedients not very palatable in Great Britain, to prevent the trade of the North of Germany from being disturbed by the quarrels of England and France. He has no doubt that Denmark might have been persuaded to secure the neutrality of the Elbe.—We hope that the whole of this work will meet the eye of administration, and that this part of it will engage its serious consideration.

A very interesting and flattering sketch is given of the present state of Denmark. Its strength and force are represented as far more considerable than they are generally imagined to be; and very plausible reasons are assigned, to shew the eligibility of an alliance between that kingdom and Great Britain.

The subsequent passage, though it does not seem to have any immediate relation to the objects of the letter, is too curious to be passed over; and, as well as several others which we could point out, it proves its author to be no mean projector.

'There are in Europe four localities where grand navigable canals would be of universal benefit to the trade and industry of all nations, viz. between the Trave and the Elbe; from the river Po to the Mediterranean; between the Gulph of Lions and the Garonne; and from the North sea to the Irish channel. I mean canals on which ships of all sizes could navigate. To the construction of such works, all the states of Europe and America should contribute.'

In a letter on the present state of Austria, the writer observes to his correspondent:

'It is a notorious truth, that prior to the peace of Luneville the Austrian armies were exhausted; neither your embezzled subsidies,

* See a contradiction of the whole of this statement, nor in the Correspondence, Review for November 1804. p. 336. founded on the authority of Lord St Helens himself

nor her own, perhaps on some occasions, ill-guided efforts, were sufficient to oppose the enemy; she therefore made peace. Not however like you, to husband her resources by diminishing her force: Austria made peace to obtain time to draw forth her resources and to re-organize her strength.

'To recruit her armies and recover her finances, the present war is a most propitious circumstance; it delivers the government of Austria from the menacing part of the intrigues of France; it disconcerts the plans of France and Russia, and renders the co-operation of their powers, were they inclined to co-operate, much less formidable. Under these circumstances, whatever the cabinet of Vienna may think proper to profess, it is the immediate interest of the emperor to endeavour, in as far as his influence will go, to protract the present contest untll he shall be able to consolidate the rank and independence of the Austrian monarchy upon its own internal strength.'

After having given a picture of Europe, as newly modelled by the late wars and commotions, the author says:

'The cabinet of Vienna has maturely calculated the probable effects that may result from the present state of things; that government is convinced that, to maintain the integrity of the monarchy and the independence of the state, it is now become indispensably necessary to organize and keep up such a defensive force as may at all times be equal to the most virgorous offensive measures. To organize this force, and to provide for its permanent maintenance, is therefore now, as it ought to be, the principal concern of the Austrian government.

'At the peace of Luneville, Austria had on foot, and able to bear arms, only about 150,000 men; by the indefatigable exertions of the Arch-Duke Charles, although he has been but ill supported by a wretched system of finance, the Austrian army, at this moment, amounts to 400,000 effective men; the best troops and the best equipt of any in Europe. This army is raised upon a population of nearly 26 millions of people, the most patriotic, loyal, and brave, of perhaps any nation in the world *. With this force, and able to keep it up, Austria may still resume her long lost rank and political consequence in Europe. Her finances however require, that if she can, consistent with her honor and safety, she should yet for some time maintain her neutrality; and which she will in all likelihood endeavour to do—except she be vexed and insulted by France, or encouraged and properly guarantied by Great Britain and Russia.'

'* In the hereditary dominions of the House of Austria, a great proportion of the peasantry are in feodal vassalage: at this moment the Arch-Duke Charles has it in contemplation to offer these men civil liberty, and the right of citizens on condition, that, in case the state shall have occasion to require it, their young men shall enrol themselves for six years military service. Should the Duke, in spite of the pride, ostentation, and bigotry of the land proprietors, be able to carry this proposed measure into effect; he may in the course of three months after the publication of the ordinance, command a million of such volunteers as would soon manage Bonaparte's conscripts and veterans, were the Consul with his Guides at their head.'

'To raise the Austrian monarchy to its natural standard has, I believe, ever been the leading motive by which the Arch-Duke's conduct has been guided: he fought like a hero as long as he believed that he was thereby serving the state; but when he saw that to continue the war was to endanger the future independence of his country, he advised to make peace. Whenever the Duke shall see his sovereign in a state to avenge his country's wrongs, he will, you may depend upon it, advise him to do so. In the mean time, it is much to be wished, that an alliance, formed upon liberal principles of national interests and reciprocal advantage, could be brought about between the Austrian and British monarchies. The phrase natural ally, like that of natural enemy, has in itself neither sense nor any sort of meaning; all communities of men are naturally allies: but, in as far as the security and political independence of a state constitute the leading interest of the nation, the Austrian and British monarchies are upon that principle politically allies.

'Since Spain and Holland were, as we may now fairly consider them to be, both completely subjugated, or become dependent on the government of France, if the British nation have an interest, either political or commercial, in the destiny of Europe and Asia, that interest should, by every rule of political combination, be supported by the powers and perfect independency of the Austrian monarchy: were it not for the intervenient power of Austria, Russia and France could, to-morrow or next day, divide the continental part of our Eastern hemisphere between them. The power of Austria, if, however left to itself alone, may be compelled to bend; it may even be crushed between those swelling empires; but in alliance with Great Britain, and loyally supported by your marine, no power nor combination of power could ever be in any wise formidable to the one or to the other. That the dissolution of the Turkish government in Europe must very soon take place, is, I presume evident to every impartial man of common knowledge. Such an event is perhaps desirable; and it might be highly beneficial to Europe in general; but the partition of the Turkish dominions, and to whom the several lots may fall, must be to Great Britain and Austria considerations of the very highest importance. Should the Dardanelles and Bosphorus fall under the dominion of either France or Russia; or should these two powers be allowed to join hands in the demarcation line between Europe and Asia, the consequences cannot be foreseen. To prevent the evils that must otherwise arise out of the partition treaty now contriving between the cabinets of Petersburgh and St. Cloud, and by which the king of Hungary is allowed a share, the most effectual measure would be a close connection and cordial alliance between Great Britain and Austria. Supported by Great Britain with vigor and in good faith, Austria would very soon, or before any of her neighbours were in a state to quarrel with her, be able to cover most effectually the land frontiers of European Turkey; and if you retain the island of Malta, your navy may as effectually cover the water frontiers of that empire.'

'An alliance between Great Britain and Austria would destroy the prospect of the consul being able to divide Turkey, and might arrest his progress in other quarters; Bonaparte's usurpations would then be

be at an end; and peace and security might be re-established in Europe.

'Thus, Sir, I have pointed out to you two allies, Denmark and Austria. With the efficacious support and steady friendship of Great Britain, the one, whatever you may think of it, might always maintain the freedom of the Baltic and peace in the North; and the other could preserve the independence of the Dardanelles, and prevent for ever, the co operation of the powers of France and Russia, the only combination of power the world has to dread. Do not however, I beg of you, believe that I am such a novice as to presume, that your leading politicians will ever see the state of Europe in the same light that I now represent it.'

In the present, as in his former tracts, the author recommends to us a more *active* hostility than we now display: but why does he not lay the scene of it, and state the object at which we should aim? We must all be sensible of the advantages of offensive operations, but the field in which they can be executed does not present itself to our view. It is consolatory to learn that the war, the pressure of which we so much feel, raises a barrier against the power of France by assisting Austria to regain her former ascendancy. The communications of this intelligent writer warrant the conclusion that the fate of Europe, though placed in imminent hazard, is not yet hopeless; while they also shew that there never was a period which required so much integrity, ability, and firmness, in the persons to whose management the interests of states are intrusted.

The writer contrives to make very humorous and sarcastic attacks on some of our national failings and political errors, under the cover of certain pretended extracts from a memorial said to be delivered to Bonaparte, containing a plan for the destruction of Britain by means of peace, and a treaty of commerce favourable to the views and wishes of its inhabitants. This *jeu d'esprit*, which pleasantly submits very grave matter to our consideration, thus concludes;

"Permit me to remark to you, citizen Consul, that the dismissal of Marlborough, Godolphin and their colleagues in 1710, sunk the power and influence of England from the dictatorship of Europe to their natural level, and enabled Louis XIV. to raise the pretensions of France to where you have extended her dominion: when another set of daring men at the head of this government again threatened the political balance and commercial liberties of Europe, the resignation of Chatham in 1761 saved the French and Spanish empires abroad, and laid the preliminaries to the independence of America. The king has lately dismissed an arrogant but able minister, and has thereby disarmed the most formidable enemy of the French government—do not citizen C—— neglect this propitious juncture; it may be of short duration; these imperious people will not long

be

be led by the pacific docility of their present rulers, and any change must be detrimental to the interests of the republic."

On what follows, we shall only observe that we pray that it may be correct:

'I have mentioned to you on former occasions, that notwithstanding the scurrility with which your English writers speak of the politics of the legitimate sovereigns of the continent, they are really honest and honourable men; you accuse them of timidity and of a connivance with Bonaparte! Sir, believe me the people of England are ill informed. I will not speak of Spain and Italy——but from a knowledge of facts I can assure you, that there is not another sovereign prince in Europe but who considers the present government of France as the heaviest malediction that ever overtook civil society. They are, *every one*, convinced that the dominion of that licentious nation must be circumscribed, or that Europe will be over-run by its marauding armies: these sovereigns are therefore, upon principles of self-preservation, the irreconcileable enemies of Bonaparte's usurpation; and they,—that is, those who have the means, are really at this moment adopting measures to bring about its destruction. The three leading powers are, you may rely upon it as a fact, now resolved, in accord with one another, to raise their military force to such a standard, as shall not only secure their own independence, but likewise restore *in time* the political existence of other states. That Russia, Austria, and Prussia have been too long in coming to a frank explanation with one another on this subject, is to be regretted: for, as I said to you in a former letter, were the consul less occupied about getting upon a *mushroom throne*, he might certainly embarrass their measures before they could singly, or united oppose his operations; but to defeat the ultimate success of their plan is impossible. Bonaparte knows that those sovereigns as well as every honest man are the enemies of his government, and that they are determined to circumscribe its dominion. He knows that the Austrian regular army amounts to 400,000 brave men in a high state of discipline; that Prussia can muster nearly 300,000 soldiers commanded by the most intelligent officers in Europe, and that Russia can in a little time organize an army of almost any number of men. Thus circumstanced, can it be presumed that the consul, presumptuous as you say he is, should export 200,000 of his best troops? The hero of Marengo could not pretend to undertake the conquest of England with a smaller number. Suppose the Gallic emperor had nothing to apprehend from his continental neighbours, by whom is his expedition to England to be conducted? Should he put himself at the head of the army, to whom could he intrust the *mantle* and *crown* in his absence? He knows that once landed in England, those who are now his warmest friends in France would instantaneously offer to the British government peace upon any terms, if you engaged to keep him there, or to send him to Botany-Bay: rather than take Bonaparte back, the French would consent to evacuate Holland, Brabant and Italy; and they would give *Corsica* to the Day of Algiers. This, Sir! is not *plaisanterie*; you may believe me it is a serious fact. Should he give the command of the Expedition

to any one of his generals—that would be to reinforce his enemies with his own strength—or suppose, what is not very likely, that his *Aide de Camp* succeeded, would *le vainqueur de l'Angleterre* ever again receive a *parole d'ordre* from a *Bonaparte ?*'

Our political instructor is of opinion that the present unparalleled sway of Bonaparte will be of no long duration. He seems to think that *we* shall not make a great difficulty of acknowledging his new dignity, but he relies on it that Austria will not so far degrade herself. The fact turns out to be the reverse, and shews how dangerous it is to deal in political prophesies; while it shakes our confidence in other predictions of the author, none of which are delivered with more assurance than the one in question.

'Were Mr. Pitt (he tells us) to come into the cabinet to morrow, and next day to declare or cause to be proclaimed publicly to the world, that his majesty was determined to destroy the Napoleon government, and to enable the French nation to organize a rational and legal government for themselves, and that no propositions of peace should be received until that was accomplished—I am certain that half the French army would leave Bonaparte's standard in 8 days; and the whole army would leave him in less than 3 weeks. But secret intrigues inspire mistrust, and will never make these people act, except it be against the authors of such intrigues.'

We fear that the latter prediction is no better founded than that which precedes it.—The author takes frequent opportunities of extolling Mr. Pitt as a statesman. Without attempting to give judgment on this contested point, we shall content ourselves with observing that, in all his attempts to humble France, and to check its aggrandizement, he has been completely foiled; and that he has studiously and uniformly avoided doing what the author so much recommends, namely, stating to the country the object of the struggles in which it has been embarked.—Notwithstanding some questionable opinions, and hazardous predictions, which the work before us contains, we are very certain that the extracts which we have made from it, and the character of the author's former tracts, will secure for it due attention on the part of the public. Did it stand in need of farther recommendations from us, we should most certainly bestow them, and deem them well conferred. The residence of this Gentleman abroad gives him vast advantages, and qualifies him for offering useful instructions to his countrymen; if indeed he be an Englishman, which we sometimes doubt.

Jo.

ART.

ART. XI. *Mr.* Leslie's *Inquiry into the Nature and Propagation of Heat.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 93.]

THE principles and laws of the cooling of bodies in elastic fluids being stated, Mr. Leslie next investigates the same phænomena in non elastic fluids; and the fluid which is the subject of his experiments is water. A hot body placed in water is cooled chiefly, according to Mr. L., by two only of the refrigerating causes which act in an elastic medium: a portion of the heat is uniformly absorbed by the surrounding water, and conducted through the internal mass, in the same manner as if it were congealed into solid ice; and the remaining portion is discharged by the slow recession of the heated particles. In water, however, the law of this second refrigerating cause will not be the same as in air, in which it varies simply as the excess of temperature; and the proof that the law is not the same is derived from experiment. Thus, suppose a ball containing hot water, and furnished with a thermometer, to be immersed in a water-bath, and the temperature of the bath to be in three experiments 0, 30°, 60°, and the corresponding temperatures of the immersed ball, 20°, 50°, 80°: then in the first experiment the thermometer sinks 10 degrees in 6 minutes; in the 2d, 10 degrees in $3\frac{1}{4}$ minutes; and in the 3d, 10 degrees in 2 minutes:—but in air the expression for the time being $t = b.\left\{\text{log.}\,\frac{a+b}{a+H} - \text{log.}\,\frac{b}{H}\right\}$ must evidently be the same, since b and H are the same whether they = 10—0, and 20—0, or = 40—30 and 50—30, or = 70—60 and 80—60. The author attributes this increase in the rate of cooling to a property peculiar to water, namely that of expanding with a rapid acceleration on receiving equal accessions of heat. If e be the dilatation, and h the temperature, then $de \propto h.dh$, consequently $e \propto h^2$, reckoning the commencement of expansion from the point of congelation; and here Mr. L. takes occasion to controvert an idea which has recently been announced as a curious and remarkable fact, that the minimum of the expansion of water takes place, not at the point of congelation, but a few degrees above that point. On a subject of such interest, we quote the author's own words:

'I have referred the commencement of expansion in water to the point of congelation. But it now seems generally supposed that water is contracted into the smallest volume about five or six degrees above zero, and, in its descent beyond this stationary limit, again undergoes a slight dilatation. I am disposed, however, to question the accuracy of a principle so discordant and anomalous. In fact the ex-

periments on which it is grounded, though somewhat varied in their plan, never give the true expansions of water, but only the differences between those expansions and the corresponding expansions of glass. Having filled a thin glass ball, terminating in a fine tubular stem, with distilled water, and cooled the whole down to the point of congelation, I plunged it into a large bath, whose temperature was four or five degrees above zero. The water in the stem sunk at first considerably, owing evidently to the dilatation of the glass, and, by consequence, the enlarged capacity of the ball; but it then rose a sensible space, which must be ascribed to the expansion of the water itself. In like manner, when the procedure is reversed, and the ball, heated up a few degrees, is plunged into a bath at the point of congelation, the water rises in the stem as the ball contracts, and then, by its own contraction, partially subsides. The dilatation of glass by heat is indeed so very small, that in most cases it may be safely disregarded. But the rate with which water contracts is perpetually diminishing as the heat declines, and therefore, at some particular point, this effect is exactly counteracted by the opposite contraction of the glass, and beyond it the latter must predominate. Nor is it difficult to determine, at least theoretically, the position of the *minimum*, or limit of apparent condensation. Water expands about the 24th part of its bulk between freezing and boiling; and glass, in the same interval, expands longitudinally the 1200dth part, and consequently its dilatation, in all the three dimensions, must amount to the 400dth part of its whole volume. The expansion of water that corresponds to any temperature x is therefore denoted by $\frac{1}{24}\left(\frac{x}{100}\right)^2$, and that of glass by $\frac{x}{40,000}$. Equating these two expressions, we obtain $\frac{x^2}{24}=\frac{x}{4}$, and therefore $x=6°$. This remarkable coincidence seems to dispel every shadow of doubt, and we may embrace it as an established fact, that the successive dilatations of water, counting from zero, are as the natural progression of numbers.'

This objection, against the principle of the minimum of the expansion of water being at a point above congelation, seems to us very weighty and formidable; and we hope that it will give rise to new experiments, in order that the fact may finally be determined.

If, then, the refrigerating cause, which arises from the recession of the heated particles, vary as the square of the temperature, let its effect at 100 be denoted by f; then at any other temperature (h) it $=f\left(\frac{h}{100}\right)^2$. Let $c=$ the conducting power of water; and since it appears by experiment that the rate of cooling is five times greater at the boiling than at the freezing point,

$$\therefore c+f.\frac{0^2}{100^2}=\tfrac{1}{5}\,c+f.\left(\frac{100}{100}\right)^2 \text{ and } f=4c.$$

Suppose

Suppose $c = 1$ $\therefore f = 4$, and the sum of the two refrigerating causes at any temperature h, $= 1 + 4.\left(\frac{h}{100}\right)^2$ or $= 1 + \frac{h^2}{2500}$ when the water-bath is at the point of congelation: but, let the temperature of the water-bath be h', then the two refrigerating causes are 1 and $\frac{h^2 - h'^2}{2500}$. Let $2500 = a^2$, then $-dh = m\,(h - h')\left(1 + \frac{h^2 - h'^2}{a}\right) .dt$, m a constant co-efficient; consequently,

$$m.dt = -\frac{dh}{h-h'} + \frac{dh\,(h+h')}{a^2+h^2-h'^2} = \frac{-dh}{h-h'} + \frac{h.dh}{b^2+h^2} + \frac{h'dh}{b^2+h^2}\ (a^2 - h'^2 = b^2)$$

$$\therefore mt = h.l.\frac{1}{h\ \ h'} + \tfrac{1}{2}\,h.l\,(b^2+h^2) + \frac{h'}{b^2} \times \text{Arc (tang} = h \text{ and rad} = b) + \text{corr}^{n}.$$

$$\therefore mt = h.l\,\frac{H-h'}{h-h'} + h.l.\sqrt{\frac{b^2+h^2}{b^2+H^2}} + \frac{h'}{b^2} \times \text{difference of}$$

2 Arcs, rad$^{s} = b$, and tangents being H, h.

When $h' = o$, or the water-bath is at the point of congelation,

$$mt = h.l.\frac{H}{h} + h.l.\sqrt{\frac{b^2+h^2}{b^2+H^2}}$$

$$\text{or} = \frac{1}{M}\left\{\log.\frac{H}{h} + \log.\sqrt{\frac{b^2+h^2}{b^2+H^2}}\right\}$$

Mr. L. puts for $\frac{M}{m}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, but we do not perceive his method of determining that co-efficient; which he ought to have explained.

It appears to us that the foregoing solution depends on the supposition of h', the temperature of the water-bath, remaining constant; which will not be the case, except the bath, comparatively with the immerged ball, be very small:—the solution in that case will demand modification, and become more difficult.

Mr. Leslie has not verified these theoretical deductions by actual experiment; and we are surprized at his neglect, in this instance. We suspect that a very near coincidence of theoretical and experimental results will not be manifested, when the times of cooling bodies in water are observed: for it seems to us that the agency of refrigeration, produced by the continual ascent of the heated particles, is greater than the author seems willing to allow. He indeed admits this agency, and, in discussing it, notices several curious phænomena which can only be explained by the very imperfect conducting power of fluids; and here is the difference between Count Rumford and Mr.

Leslie: the former asserting that fluids are totally destitute of a conducting power, while the latter maintains that their conducting power is very small. The difference is material, then, since it involves a question not merely about *degree*.

We have mentioned the name of Count Rumford; and it was our intention to have noticed and commented on the remarkable coincidence between the inquiries, with respect to their object, conduct, and result, of that gentleman and of the present author: but we find ourselves obliged to refrain. We only observe that, among other points of resemblance, the similarity of the two instruments, (the *thermoscope* and the *differential thermometer*,)—and the identity of the curious result that, although repeated folds of linen or flannel retard the cooling of a metal body, yet one fold may accelerate it,—suffice to convince any person, not determined to call in the aid of a miracle, of a connection between one of these writers with the experiments and discoveries of the other; and it is a duty incumbent on him, to whom the right of originality belongs, to step forwards and assert it.

In the 18th chapter, the author applies his theory to discover the diminution in the rate of cooling, produced by surrounding the heated body with concentric *septa*. Suppose a series of hollow cylindrical vessels, made of very thin brass, to be so constructed as to fit the one into the other like a nest of boxes, and to be kept separate from each other by resting on the protuberant parts of a chequered ring: let a, b, c, &c. be the diameters of the cylinders, h, h', h'', &c. the temperatures of their sides, H, H', H'', &c. the temperatures of the included portions of air; then, rejecting the pulsatory communication of heat, (which, in the case of a series of cylindrical vessels, would be exceedingly attenuated,) we have these similar equations:

$$H = \frac{ha^2 + h'b^2}{a^2 + b^2} \qquad H = 2h' - H' = 2h' - 2h'' + 2h'''$$

$$H' = \frac{h'b^2 + h''c^2}{b^2 + c^2} \qquad H' = 2h'' - H'' = 2h'' - 2h'''$$

$$H'' = \frac{h''c^2 + h'''d^2}{c^2 + d^2} \qquad H'' = 2h'''$$

&c.

and hence, by elimination, h''' may be determined in terms of a, b, c, &c. and of h.

Suppose, for instance, that there are two cases, a being the diameter of the vessel that contains the heated fluid: then

$$h'' = \frac{d^2 b^2 h}{b^2 c^2 + 2a^2 c^2 + 2a^2 b^2}$$

and

and consequently $\frac{b'' c^2}{b a^2} = \frac{b^2 c^2}{b^2 c^2 + 2a^2 c^2 + 2a^2 b^2} =$

$\frac{b^2}{b^2 + 2a^2 + 2a^2 \cdot \frac{b^2}{c^2}}$ expresses the diminished rate of cooling.

Suppose a, b, c, nearly equal; and experiment shews that the diminution in the rate of cooling, (which beyond a certain limit, is a very inconsiderable quantity) is not affected by the thickness of the confined portions of air: then the diminished rate is expressed by $\frac{1}{5}$; and if an additional case be added, by $\frac{1}{7}$, &c.

The author next considers the case in which the concentric cylinders are vitreous:—but it is time for us to check our progress.—We must not, however, pass over in silence the photometer, or an instrument for measuring the intensity of light; which, in the principle of its construction, resembles the *differential thermometer* and *hygrometer* constructed by Mr. Leslie Two tubes, into which sulphuric acid tinged with carmine is introduced, are joined together by means of a blow-pipe, and made to stand parallel to each other, the interval between them being occupied by a graduated scale: the ends of the tubes are closed by two hollow glass balls, one transparent, the other blackened: when the instrument is exposed to the action of light, the blackened ball absorbs light, and, according to the author, a proportional quantity of heat; or, by varying the expression of the fact, a proportional quantity of heat is excited, which produces a dilatation in the air contained in the blackened ball, and causes the coloured liquor to rise in the tube terminated by the transparent ball, which, absorbing no light, receives no accession of heat. The instrument, no doubt, is uncommonly ingenious; and subsequent experiments and researches may prove the exactness of its principle: but, at present, it appears to us to rest on this supposition, that light and heat are the same fluid, or, in the words of the author, only different states of the same identical substance. What is it, of which the ascent of the coloured liquor is a token and indication? Increased elasticity of the air contained in the black ball. The cause of that increased elasticity, from analogy, we infer to be heat; and of that heat, no doubt, light is the *cause*, since the two balls differ only in this, that the one absorbs light and the other does not: but, although, in a certain sense, light may be said to be the *cause*, yet, how do we know that the accession of heat is in exact proportion to the absorption of light? The instrument exposed to the action of light shews, by the rise of its coloured liquor, an accession of heat (h): now let the heat indicated be $2h$; is it a strict inference that the light is

doubled? No, except we admit the principle that light excites heat exactly in proportion to its own quantity: or that heat is only light under a latent form, in consequence of detention and absorption.

These are objections which, in the present state of facts and theory, are proper and reasonable: but we wish that they may be removed: for if we are permitted to have *belief* in these cases, we believe that trial and research will establish the accuracy of the instrument.

Mr. L. surrounds the photometer with a glass case, in order to prevent the dissipation of heat; and he argues, with his customary acuteness, that the instrument, thus *cased*, will indicate truly the absorption of light, since the expenditure of heat, caused by the process of refrigeration, varies as the excess of temperature between the heated body and the surrounding air.

The application of the photometer is very various and curious: it announces some results which are contrary to common belief, and others which are contrary to received opinion. The author dislikes the distribution of the prismatic light into seven colours, and throws considerable doubts on the reality of the distinction of *calorific* and *colorific* rays.—As his investigations are so much implicated with those of Count Rumford and Dr. Herschell, we anticipate a controversy, in which we think Philosophy will be a gainer.

As our limits are already transgressed, we must refer the inquisitive and philosophic reader to the volume itself for farther gratification; and he will find it a work which is not produced every day, nor by an intellect of an ordinary size. Some of its discussions are rather intricate, and the author's mathematical mode of arguing throws over it an air of abstruseness *: but the general scope of the reasoning, the experiments, and the results of the inquiries, are not above the capacity of common understandings. Of these experiments and results, the most curious and original undoubtedly are those which relate to the difference of power, possessed by various substances, in emitting heat that can be reflected and again concentrated; that is, according to Mr. L.'s hypothesis of emitting heat by pulsation. Hence his theory chiefly derives its eminence and character; and, among the causes on which the process of refrigeration depends, the *pulsatory* is most clearly ascertained.

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* Mr. Leslie uses the differential notation, and gives his reasons for adopting it. Our opinion on this head is already known. See account of La Croix on the Differential Calculus, Rev. Vols. xxxi. and xxxii.

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Concerning the other causes of refrigeration, we have stated our doubts of the accuracy with which they are distinguished, their laws propounded, and their value assigned: something remains to be elucidated respecting the expression $(a+b)$ of the combined action of three of the causes, in terms of the temperature and of constant quantities; and with regard to the meaning of *intensity of impression*, which refers (we imagine) to the fourth cause: remove the calculation, and it seems to us that the author attributes too great an effect to *abduction*, and too little to the refrigeration produced by the continual ascent of heated particles. Still, however, in this very intricate analysis, we admire the great skill with which the experiments are varied, and the separate actions of the *cooling* causes evolved. Our objections we purpose not to defend as if they were property or prejudices: they may originate either from misconception on our part, or from the omission of necessary explanation, or from real error: be this as it may, we should be happy to see them removed, not averse, with information more ample or more correct, to re-enter on the present train of thought and investigation.—With respect to arrangement and construction, the author has not done ample justice to his theory; which he should have exhibited more summarily, and with greater closeness of connection; and he should not have interrupted the process of reasoning, by so many separate discussions.

In reviewing such a production as the present, we shall not insist on some little inaccuracies of style which have occurred to us *; and particularly as, generally speaking, the composition

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* A note will contain a few errata which we have detected,

In note 10, we find $\frac{\pi x^2}{a^2+x^2}$ for $\frac{\pi a^2}{a^2+x^2}$.

P. 73. *Inverse ratio of the distance*, for *inverse ratio of the square of the distance.*

P. 282. v made to denote velocity instead of additional velocity.

P. 543. $\frac{1}{2}v^2.\times gn=\frac{a^2}{2a}$, for $\frac{v^2}{2}=gn.\frac{a^2}{2a}$.

P. 324. Log. $\frac{b}{a+b}$, for log. $\frac{a+b}{b}$; and in the note to the same part, $\frac{log.\,H}{log.\,b}$— log. $\frac{a+H}{log.\,a+b}$ is put for, log. $\frac{H}{b}$—log. $\frac{a+H}{a+b}$.

P. 328. In value of dt, for a surface of paper, $\frac{dh}{h}$ is omitted.

P. 350. 1250 for 2500.

P. 351. In the 2d expression for time, the minus sign is omitted, and b put for b'.—In the note, − sign is omitted before H.log. $b-b'$.

is much superior to that of most scientific details. Nor were we violently displeased on occasionally meeting with a tone rather too arrogant, and an inference too precipitate; because we applaud the freedom, the fearlessness, and the activity of the author's mind. Unfettered by system, and unawed by authority, he always thinks for himself; and of his opinions, many are novel, and all are interesting. As a whole and a system, his work claims attention; and the discussions, whether adjunctive or subsidiary, in the notes or the text, are profound and original. In the dark and tortuous passages of his theory, although experience is his sure and constant guide, yet Geometry holds her torch, and illumines the way.

R.W.

ART. XII. *A Brief Inquiry into the present Condition of the Navy of Great Britain*, and its Resources: followed by some Suggestions, calculated to remedy the Evils, the Existence of which is made apparent in the course of the Investigation. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Highley.

ART. XIII. *A Reply to a Pamphlet intitled, "A Brief Inquiry,"* &c. &c. Wherein is clearly demonstrated the Force of the Enemy, and what was opposed to it by the late Board of Admiralty; as well as the actual Strength possessed by the King's Dock Yards, and their Ability to keep up and increase the Navy, without the aid of Merchant Builders. 8vo. 1s. Ginger.

ART. XIV. *Audi alteram Partem: or the real Situation of the Navy of Great Britain at the Period of Lord St. Vincent's Resignation*; being a Reply to the Mis-statements of "An Answer to Mr. Pitt's Attack upon Earl St. Vincent and the Admiralty *:" also containing the Substance of a suppressed Pamphlet on the same Subject. By an Officer of His Majesty's Navy. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Budd.

WE cannot suppress our opinion that this controversy claims very serious attention from those who take an active part in our national councils; and we recommend to their dispassionate and studious perusal the tracts which it has called forth, as well as the several reports of the Commissioners of Naval Inquiry. Judging from the view which we have been able to take of the subject, we cannot pronounce that the economical plans of the late first Lord of the Admiralty were pernicious, impracticable, absurd, and puerile; they may have been commenced at an unlucky moment, may have been too much precipitated, in some instances may have been harshly executed, and the opposition to them, with its effects, may not have been sufficiently calcu-

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* See Review for July last, p. 315.

lated: but, on the other hand, all the discussion which they have undergone only serves to strengthen our conviction, that they originated in genuine patriotism, and honourable zeal for the service; that they were the result of experience sanctioned by wisdom, and intimately interwoven with the ultimate prosperity and dearest interests of the country. Though the noble projector of them no longer superintends them himself, it appears to us to require the most grave deliberation of Parliament, to determine whether the labour bestowed on them is to be thrown away. We have not to learn from the virulent pamphlets before us, from these advocates of expence, from these panegyrists of profusion, that reforms never proceed smoothly; that the tongue of calumny is busy in traducing the promoters of them; and that those, who were pampered by the fruits of the impositions lately exposed, are active in obstructing the benefits of investigation. That anonymous writers should broadly profess enmity to economy is not matter of surprize: but when they state it as a solemn accusation, that on the late board of Admiralty announcing an intended visit to one of the divisions of marines, "it had the effect of producing in the case of one individual apoplexy, and in another mental derangement," this avowed sympathy with persons who betray a consciousness of extreme guilt is indeed somewhat strange. If these apologists pleaded the cause of extravagance as respecting our brave defenders, who shed their blood to protect us, we should attentively and respectfully listen to them: but when it applies to persons who have no more to do with warfare than the artisans who cast our artillery, or the taylors who make our uniforms, we are at a loss to guess what is in their case, that rendered it so criminal in the late board of Admiralty to endeavour to confine them to their fair and honest earnings! When we reflect on the extravagance of some of the charges preferred against the Board, on the flimsiness of others, and on the satisfactory manner in which the rest are by its advocates refuted, we cannot help conjecturing that it was the weakness of other departments of administration that occasioned its fall, rather than its own demerits.

It is asserted, in one of these pamphlets, that 10,000 seamen from the port of London alone, at the epoch of the peace, went over to the enemy; that our shipwrights have acted the same part, and been well received; that the late Admiralty sold a quantity of hemp from the King's stores, and that it found its way to the consular repositories at Brest; that certain ships have been lost; that privateers have contrived to escape in some instances the vigilance of our cruizers, to slip out to sea, and to commit depredations on our trade; and

that

that the small craft of the enemy has been able, under the protection of the batteries on shore, to assemble at the places of their rendezvous. These severally form weighty charges in the accusing pages.

One of the accusers of the dismissed board impeaches the blockading system itself. It may be observed that not the board, but the cabinet, is answerable for that measure: but, as the plan has both been adopted and professedly extended by the present regulators of our naval affairs, we must conclude that the accuser preferred this charge without instruction from his patrons.

The enemies of Lord St. Vincent join with him in representing the extreme inactivity prevalent in the King's dock-yards; and they do not controvert the facts on which the conclusion is founded, that the hands employed and the expenditure made in the several arsenals would, under the same management with that which is exerted in the Merchant-yards, be more than adequate to construct and keep in repair the whole Navy of England. What, then, renders it an offence in the noble Earl to attempt to make them efficient? What claims have these establishments to be made sinecures? Why are two-thirds of the Navy of England to issue out of the private yards, in order that the artisans in those of the King may live in indolence? The letter of Mr. Wells, who is a private builder, subjoined to the last of the above pamphlets, is in every way creditable to the writer, and impresses the reader strongly in his favour: but it contains no accusation against the late First Lord, nor do we see how it can be construed to his disadvantage. The merit of the private yards is not the question; the matter in dispute is the destination of the royal yards, how far they fulfil it, and the expediency of removing the abuses and defects with which they are chargeable. On this subject, let us attend to what is said by the author of the Reply:

'From the foregoing statement, it appears that 5329 Shipwrights and Caulkers (exclusive of apprentices) *in the Merchants' yards*, cannot only keep in repair nearly TWO MILLIONS OF TONS of shipping (which are in *constant wear*, and not lying in the harbours, as one third of the Royal Navy has and ever will), and build upwards of 100,000 tons per year, but also add one half to the list of the Navy; whilst 2870 Shipwrights and Caulkers in the King's yards have not kept in repair *five hundred and twenty three thousand two hundred and thirty one* tons, and have built only 29 sail of the line in 24 years. Moreover, let it be remembered, as *a well authenticated fact*, that 46 Shipwrights can, without any extraordinary exertion, *build* a 74 *gun ship in twelve months!* to which need only be added what has been stated by Mr. Wells, "that in the year 1795 he launched from *his yard* 8000 tons of shipping *more than any three* of his Majesty's yards together launched in

in the same period." I find that Mr. Wells has, at this time in his yard, 14 Shipwrights (apprentices included), which is 17 more than can be found in the employ of any other Merchant-builder in the kingdom. What conclusion then, let me ask, must be drawn with respect to the mode of working of the men in the King's yards, and *what they ought to perform*, when it is known that three of the King's yards averaged, during the whole of the year 1795, TWO THOUSAND FIVE HUNDRED AND THIRTY Shipwrights, apprentices included. *When these facts are known*, will they not create equal astonishment and indignation at the assertions which are so industriously circulated, that without the aid of the Merchant-builders the Navy cannot be kept up? Is it not manifest that *the present deplorable system* is ruinous to the country, and calculated to keep us for ever dependent on the Merchant builders, who meaning those who have hitherto built ships of the line and frigates) do not possess *one-third* of the strength or ability to be found in the King's yards? And does not that man deserve the highest praise and honours which a grateful country can bestow, who, equally regardless of the odium attached to reform, as the clamour of the interested, has devoted his time to correct this most alarming evil, and not hesitated to bare his breast to the venomed shafts of the most virulent calumny, in order to excite a spirit of energy in our dock yards; and by tearing off the fetters from the good and industrious workmen, encourage them to exertions which cannot fail to place the Navy independent of the Merchant-builders?'

He farther adds:

'Notwithstanding the asserted challenge of Messrs. Wells, Barnard, and Brent, I am one of those who do not believe that ships built by contract are, in general, by any means so well put together as those built in the King's yards. My opinion is formed on the many instances that have appeared to the contrary; and I will mention one, because it came *a-propos* to Mr. Pitt's discussion in their favour. A day or two after the propriety of depending on the Merchant-builders for the supply of ships of the line for the Navy had been strenuously urged both within the House and out of doors, *a letter was received at the Admiralty* from the aptain of a ship of the line, built by contract not eight years since in the River Thames, *accompanied by five fore and aft bolts of the iron knees* (OR RATHER POINTS OF BOLTS) which, with several others, had worked out of the ship *during her last cruize only*, each of which should have been 20 inches long and clenched; instead of which, however, two were only $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, tapered to the points like wedges, and the other three from 7 to 11! I believe I may defy all the Merchant builders in the kingdom to produce one solitary instance of a single bolt of this description ever having worked out, or made its appearance, on board *any ship built in a King's yard*. In defence of these circumstances, it is urged, that the ship, when building, is under the inspection of a resident Overseer, whose duty it is to see that all the materials are good, and the work well executed. It is true, a person of that description is appointed by the Navy Board, and the Merchant-builder cannot obtain his bills, during the progress of the work, until the Overseer has certified that it has

been properly performed, and with good materials. Without dwelling much on the practice which, it is said, has prevailed of making regular presents to the Overseer, at the payment of the several bills to which he has certified, and at the launching of the ship, how, let me ask the Merchant-builders, can they in their conscience throw the responsibility of insufficient or improper work on an Overseer, who perhaps has half a dozen ships to attend to at the same time, besides having to send the Navy Board a weekly statement of all the works performed?'

On behalf of the late Board, it is observed by the same writer:

'That the *most exaggerated* accounts which have been received of the enemy's preparations, state them to consist of 48 sail of the line, 37 frigates, 22 corvettes, 4 praames (or sloops of war), 120 gun-brigs of the first class, carrying each 6 guns, and 2115 gun-boats, schuyts, and boats and vessels of every sort or description; to oppose which there were, on the day the late Admiralty retired, 88 sail of the line, 15 fifties, 125 frigates, 92 sloops, 18 bombs, 40 gun-brigs of 12 guns each, 6 gun-boats, 82 cutters and schooners, 41 armed ships, and 997 boats armed with guns, on the coast, besides 5 sail of the line, 1 fifty, 4 frigates, and 3 sloops, which will be ready to commission in the month of June. This statement includes, as well the enemy's as our own force in every part of the world; but as the general attention of the country has been directed to the threatened invasion, I shall state the force which the enemy *is said to have prepared* for that purpose, and also that which the late Board of Admiralty *had allotted* to oppose it. From the Texel to Havre de-Grace the enemy's preparations are said to consist of 5 sail of the line, 6 frigates, 6 corvettes, 4 praames, 120 gun-brigs of 6 guns, and 2115 gun-boats, schuyts, and other boats and vessels; to oppose which there were, under the command of Lord Keith and Sir James Saumarez, 21 sail of the line, 7 fifties, 36 frigates, 30 sloops, 12 bombs, 29 gun-brigs of 12 guns each, 41 cutters and schooners, and 19 armed ships, independent of 925 boats and craft armed with guns, on the Coast, in the Channel, and in the rivers Thames and Medway.'

From the best attention which we have been able to pay to this controversy, it appears to us that the charges advanced against the late Board of Admiralty were in a great degree groundless; and that the clamour against it was principally raised and sustained by those whose delinquencies and corrupt conduct it had exposed.

Jo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For OCTOBER, 1804.

POLITICS.

Art. 15. *An Answer to Lord Sheffield's Pamphlet on the Subject of the Navigation-System*; proving that the Acts deviating therefrom, which his Lordship censures, were beneficial to our Trade and Navy in the last War, and ought to be renewed in the present. By S. Cock, Commercial and Public Agent to the Corporation of Liverpool. 8vo. pp. 74. 2s 6d. Richardson. 1804.

In the notice which we took of Lord Sheffield's pamphlet, in our Number for June last, we expressed our opinion that some of the observations and facts contained in it merited discussion; and this they have received in the pages before us, from a very intelligent, able, and perspicuous writer. Mr. Cock has fully satisfied us that the alarm raised by the noble author was without foundation, and that all his apprehensions were groundless. The navigation-act has been considered as a measure in no respect unworthy of the vigorous and comprehensive mind of the bold ruler with whom it originated: it was re-enacted on the restoration; our naval power and prosperity commenced and grew up with it; and we regarded it therefore as proper to concede to the noble Lord, that a regulation, so circumstanced, was not lightly to be abrogated. On the other hand, the assent, which we have ever given to the principles of the school of Dr. Adam Smith, would not allow of our being superstitious adherents to the statute which was so much the object of Lord Sheffield's veneration.

The design of the navigation act, says Mr. Cock, was the prosperity of our trade, and the increase of our seamen; and if the late enactments do not interfere with those purposes, the advocate of that antient law has no right to complain of them, though they may in certain circumstances supersede or confine its operation. He shews that the effect of the acts censured by the noble Lord has been to increase very considerably the quantum of our imports and exports, to call forth a great sum of additional productive labour, and consequently to increase the mass of our wealth; while they placed a greater number of our mariners at the disposal of Government, and thus materially contributed to our naval superiority. In this manner, he says, have operated those acts of the Legislature, which have dispensed with the restraints imposed by the laws of Cromwell and of Charles II., and which have allowed the use of neutral bottoms. Under the influence of the same measures, our commerce and our shipping obtained a rapid, regular, and successive increase. Not only were we able to enrich ourselves by disposing of such commodities as we had to spare, and to serve our convenience by procuring such as we wanted, but commercial men derived the important advantage of preserving their customers in the hostile countries, and of preventing the trade from changing hands.

Mr.

Mr. Cock observes that, by the navigation-act, it was not necessary that a ship should be *British built*; it was only required that it should belong to the people of Great Britain, be navigated by a British commander, and by mariners, three-fourths of whom were British subjects: but, by Lord Liverpool's act, the vessel must be *British built*. The author gives no opinion on the policy of this restriction; and we regret that he has not, since he is possessed of that information and judgment which stamp value on whatever he advances. He says that by law a British ship taken by the enemy, if, after having been tried and condemned in his ports, it ever again comes to the hands of a British subject, by a sort of *jus postliminii* becomes entitled to British privileges, that is to registry; and this is the cause of most of our captured vessels finding their way back again. Mr. C. condemns this regulation, as being a premium on the capture of British vessels.

Lord S. complained that America was allowed to supply our West India islands with provisions. It is answered by Mr. C. that the planters are thus furnished at a much cheaper rate, than they could be if they drew their supplies from Great Britain; and that their activity and their wealth are thus increased, in which the mother-country, where they for the most part reside, has an interest. If, he farther observes, this trade increases the shipping of the United States, the augmentation takes place in a quarter of which we need be the least jealous.

In noticing the noble Lord's objections to permission given to the Americans to trade with India, the author remarks that, as the East India Company possess the command of all the articles which they deem expedient for their own trade, they cannot be injured by the traffic carried on by the United States in those commodities with which they do not chuse to deal. There is no reason why the Company should view this trade invidiously, since it enriches their Indian colonies: but why this traffic should be allowed to the subjects of a foreign state, to the exclusion of those of Great Britain, is a measure of which the good sense and sound judgment of Mr. C. lead him to decline the defence. If prejudice, authority, and antient usage may be pleaded by Lord Sheffield, the present author may reply in the words of an eminent judge of human transactions; * "*Comunque se sia io non giudicho, nè giu dichero, mai esser' difetto difendere alcuni opinioni con le ragioni senza volervi usare o l'autorità, o la forza.*" Jo.

Art. 16. *An Inquiry into the Causes of Popular Discontents in Ireland.* By an Irish Country Gentleman. 8vo. 2s. Wallis. 1804.

It appears to us that the whole Empire ought to be not less forward than Ireland, in calling on the authors of the Union to realize, in that country, the blessings which it was foretold would result from her adoption: but it was not to be expected that Mr. Addington should take a very active part in this most important business; since he, it

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" * However it be, I do not think, and never shall think, that it is wrong to defend opinions by reason, without having recourse to authority, or force."

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is supposed, came into power on the express condition of opposing the extension of toleration. We must, however, be allowed to observe that this gentleman, in the speech which he made in favour of the above measure, quoted with approbation, and in appearance adopted, the sentiment of Dr. Duigenan, that the Catholics might be emancipated in case the two legislatures were incorporated. The present Minister, who on the same occasion was more than usually lavish of promises, was lately, it is understood, re-admitted into office only on the condition of abandoning his engagements to the Catholics. The so much vaunted benefits of the Union, therefore, have hitherto amounted solely to a great accession of influence to the existing Minister, in transacting the affairs as well of Great Britain as of the Empire, in parliament, and to stripping Ireland of its legislature. It will, we presume, be reserved for the opponents of that great measure to render it that which we have all along believed it very capable of being made, namely a blessing to the sister island, and an augmentation of strength to Britain.—In the present elaborate tract, the author contends that good policy, not less than the essential interests of Ireland, require that its parliament should be restored to that country Though an avowed enemy to the existing legislative union, which it must be owned he combats with considerable force, he is very anxious to profess his attachment to British connection. He argues strenuously in favour of catholic emancipation, and ably labours the point that persecution is the preserving principle of sects. It is this, he tells us, which keeps together the catholic body; the young members of which, who are possessed of property, being for the most part Deists, still adhere to their communion from motives of honor and generosity, in order to shun the charge of deserting a slighted and oppressed party. The author recommends the commutation of tithes, and the gift of salaries to the Romish clergy; and he complains of the Government lending its countenance to commemorations and associations which foster bigotry, and keep up an intolerant spirit. This is the production of a very enlightened mind, and contains many passages highly worthy of the attention of public men. Jo.

Art. 17. *Observations and Reflections on the State of Ireland:* respectfully submitted to the Consideration of the British Nation. By Robert Stearne Tighe, Esq. F. R. S. and S. A. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1804.

Another warm advocate for poor Hibernia. Though not wanting in zeal, however, this writer exceeds all his fellow-labourers in temper and moderation; and he places great reliance on the pledges given to the Catholics by our Premier, of which he very respectfully reminds him. This pamphlet shews, indeed, that the several parties in our senate stand pledged to ameliorate the lot of ill-fated Ireland, yet still party succeeds party in office, and nothing has been done for the sons of Erin since the too short administration of Mr. Fox. In the same becoming spirit, Mr. Tighe animadverts on the sentiments of the Irish Lord Chancellor, as displayed in his memorable correspondence with Lord Fingal: he demonstrates the impolicy of them, and shews their total want of foundation. He enters into a vindication of Dr. Troy,

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the catholic archbishop, and furnishes extracts from the pastoral charges of that reverend prelate, which bespeak the pious man and the loyal subject. We learn that the expression in the consecration oath of the catholic bishops, "*Hæreticos persequar et impugnabo,*" having been deemed offensive by the heads of the protestant church, was, at the representation of the catholic bishops, expunged by order of the Pope; and that his holiness also directed that a clause expressly reserving their allegiance to the Crown should be introduced, couched in the terms approved by the Empress of Russia for the Roman Catholic prelates of that empire. **Jo.**

Art. 18. *Considerations on the two-fold Mode of Election adopted by the French.* By the Rev. Christopher Wyvill. 8vo. pp. 40. 1s. 6d. Johnson. 1804.

We are persuaded that the highly respectable author of this pamphlet is influenced by the most pure motives in all that he does; we admit also that his pen is ever guided by a dispassionate spirit, and always furnishes valuable instruction: but we are at the same time obliged to state that in these pages he censures more freely, and commends more lavishly, than on any former occasion. The colouring in the sketch which he draws of our Premier is certainly strong; whether it be or be not warranted, we submit to the decision of more qualified judges. Enumerating the cause of the decay of public spirit among us, he adds that, 'in the latter part of the reign of the King, the most potent bane to public virtue has been administered by a man, once its professed and devoted friend; after, that, too strongly tempted to govern by other maxims than those of liberty, by other motives than those of patriotic zeal; who by profusion acquired an almost boundless influence, and who by the arts of delusion, or the rigours of a system of terror and coercion, misled or intimidated those whom he failed to influence.'

The Minister comes again under the author's lash, when he compares the system recommended by his great rival on the political stage, with that which has been pursued:

'The first tends to elevate the general character of the community, the other to depress it. The first would preserve the Constitution in all its branches, by removing acknowledged abuses, restoring authority to the Bill of Rights, and conciliating to the King and nobles the support of the people from their love; the other would preserve the monarchy and the nobles by supporting abuses, infringing the Bill of Rights, maintaining the precedent he had introduced, and forcing the people to bow to the Constitution, *unreformed*, from fear.'

We give no opinion on these judgments; the person who pronounces them is a character justly held in veneration; and the public, we conceive, have an interest in learning his sentiments concerning men as well as measures.

Mr. Wyvill observes that, in these changeable times, it is not impossible that the nation may take a turn favourable to reform; and that the demand may be preferred in a way which cannot fail of success. In order to prevent what he conceives to be a material error from

from infecting the proceedings that may be adopted, in the event of such an emergency, he has submitted to discussion the subject mentioned in the title-page; which he has treated in his usual able and ingenious manner. The doctrine of two-fold election was first recommended to political reformers by Harrington, who had found that it was actually put in practice in the republic of Venice. The authority which it derives from this quarter is, we think, very much reduced by the circumstance of its being coupled with unqualified praises of the Venetian Constitution, of which it formed a part. Of its first English advocate, who, overlooking the admirable model of government which he had seen first violated and then subverted, racked his brains to devise schemes of a commonwealth for his country, Montesquieu beautifully observes, *il a bati Chalcedoine, ayant le rivage de Bizance devant les yeux*; and his ingenuity, though great, was accompanied with so little judgment, that his cotemporaries deemed him scarcely sane.—The Essay of Hume was an exhibition of the playfulness of his genius, and was never meant by him to be a guide for practice. As Plato wrote his Republic, and More his Utopia, so Hume penned his Idea of a perfect Commonwealth; the doctrine which he lays down is at variance with his avowed principles; and he could therefore scarcely be serious in what he advanced. We next see the same notion applauded in the *Vindiciæ Gallicæ*; the doctrines of which work, we are informed by Mr. Wyvill, have great weight with the friends of liberty, whatever the tenets may be which its learned author has since adopted. Earl Stanhope, also, it seems, in a letter to the author, applauds the dogma, and commends the part of the above work in which it is supported.

Such have been the inauspicious origin, and the limping progress, of the political device against which Mr. Wyvill has thought it worth his while to draw his able and elegant pen. The notion was adopted by a weak-judging philosopher, from the practice of one of the most oppressive governments in Europe; it exercised the ingenuity of a sceptical sage who was hostile to liberty; it passed thence into a modern publication, of the tenets of which its author publicly made something very like a formal renunciation; and the doctrine, thus abjured, Lord Stanhope has commended in a private letter. We cannot bring ourselves to think that there was any thing to be dreaded from an hypothesis, which has been so singularly circumstanced. Had it gained a footing that was in any degree formidable, we admit that the pamphlet before us would have been admirably calculated to undeceive its votaries: but, if we cannot allow that great practical benefit is likely to be derived from it, because the mischief which it is intended to correct scarcely exists, we should be unjust if we did not bestow praise on it, as containing a disquisition that will be read with pleasure by speculative politicians. Jo.

Art. 19. *Substance of the Bp. of St. Asaph's Speech in the House of Peers*, July 23, 1804, upon the Motion for the third Reading of the Bill intitled, An Act for the Relief of certain Incumbents of Livings in the City of London. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

The case of the city of London Clergy has previously been stated

in Mr. Moore's pamphlet: (see M. R. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 94.) but the Bishop of St. Asaph here reconsiders the subject, and argues with fairness and ability in behalf of the objects of this bill. He contends that, though the situation of the Clergy of the Metropolis is brought before Parliament in the shape of a private petition, the bill ought not to be regarded as a private bill, in as much as the matter to which it refers is of a public nature, being the support of the religion of the country, in the very seat of Empire. Mo.y.

Art. 20. *Hints to the People of the United Kingdom in general, and of North Britain in particular*, on the present important Crisis; and some interesting collateral Subjects. By William Dickson, LL.D. 8vo. 1s. Ogle.

To an animated eulogy on our political constitution, Dr. Dickson adds an account of the improvements which we have made in agriculture, trade, and manufactures, and by which Britain is farther distinguished from other nations. While, however, he compliments our manual exertions, he laments that we have been retrograde in religion and morality. The progress of luxury in the Lowlands of Scotland, he describes, from his personal knowlege, to have been 'from hovels to good houses, and in several of the towns, from good houses to palaces; from home-made linen, stuffs, linsey-woolsey, and honest hodden-grey, to calicoes, muslins, silks, and English broad cloths; from brass sun-dials to silver-watches; from wholesome beer and butter-milk to whisky; from porter to port-wine; from substantial oat-meal porridge to that miserable outlandish slop called tea; and in many places from bread of oats, rye, barley, or peas, butter, cheese, eggs, new milk, fish, and potatoes, with meat, and nutritive barley-broth, occasionally, to wheaten bread (which 200 years ago, could be afforded only by the prime nobility), and butcher's-meat every day.'

Some of the alterations are allowed to be for the better: but against the use of cottons in Scotland, of tea, of spirits, and of butcher's meat *every day*, the Doctor offers his protest. Those who squander their money 'in ale-houses and gin-shops, or who sit in coffee-houses having silk stockings under their boots, and their bottle of port-wine before them,' ought not, he thinks, to declaim against the public burdens. Assured, however, that even croakers are good patriots at bottom, he offers his advice to them, and to the people at large; urging unanimity and zeal in the public cause, and reminding them of the superiority of British valour, and of the truly lamentable consequences which must result from their failing to exert it in the present important crisis.—Though Dr. D. as he tells us in the advertisement, has no longer a right hand, having been disabled in the service of his country, he has still a British heart. He calls on Britons 'to arm and to go forth, relying on the help of the God of their fathers, whose holy protection has so often been as "a wall of fire" around their church and nation; to return victorious, or to make their graves with those of Falkland, Hamden, and Russel, of Bruce, Graham, Gardiner, and Abercromby.'

D.o

NOVELS.

NOVELS.

Art. 21. *The Duchess of la Valliere.* An Historical Romance. By Madame de Genlis. Translated from the French. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Murray.

It will readily be admitted by our readers, that any production from the pen of Madame de Genlis, to whose literary pretensions we have had such frequent occasion to bear our welcome testimony, is intitled to attention and respect. The history which is here given of the celebrated favourite of Lewis XIV. excites a very lively interest, not only on account of the natural goodness of heart which belonged to that unfortunate female, but from the agreeable manner of her historian, and from the many sensible reflections with which the narrative is enriched. Yet we cannot suppress a remark, which on similar occasions we have formerly advanced, that romances of this nature, in which liberties are taken with the records of history, and truth and fiction are blended together, have a pernicious tendency, proportioned to the importance of the historical facts which are thus violated. The more sensible and agreeable the writer, the more dangerous is the effect; since the fictitious incidents make the stronger impression, and are liable to be ever afterward associated in the mind of the reader with the recollection of real facts. We must add that, interesting as the present narrative undoubtedly is, we do not consider the life of such an heroine, all circumstances considered, as likely to advance the cause of religion and morals.

Art. 22. *Nature;* or a Picture of the Passions. To which is prefixed an Essay on Novel Writing. By J. Byerley. 12mo. 4 Vols. 14s. Boards. Highley.

In his preface, this author candidly acknowleges that he has deviated in several instances from the rules which he himself prescribes for a novel writer, in his essay on that subject prefixed to the present work. It is properly observed in that essay, that the events recorded in a novel should be precisely what may be supposed to take place, without exaggeration, in common life: but we do not think that the passions, which are here depicted, especially in the character of the Cardinal de Viguel, could be brought with safety to that criterion. Nature is forced beyond her accustomed limits in these instances, and the savage scenes which are introduced shock the feelings of the reader.—We meet with several innaccuracies in grammatical construction in these pages; as, for instance, the singular used for the plural, *whom* for *who*, and frequently the verb *lay* for *lie:* but the moral reflections of the writer are creditable; and if not in general deserving the praise of novelty, they have at least the merit of truth and propriety. We doubt not that every reader will sympathize with Mr Byerley, in the desire at least of having always 'a tear for distress, and a guinea for misfortune.'

The motto in the title-page is given with singular metaphorical impropriety:

'Passions, like *Winds*, will have their *ebbs* and *flows*.'

Art. 23. *The Pride of Ancestry;* or Who is She? By Mrs. Thomson. 12mo. 4 Vols. 16s. sewed. Parsons. 1804.

The object, which Mrs. Thomson appears to have principally in view in this performance, is to illustrate, by apposite examples on both sides, the truth of the observation, that titles and elevated birth are dangerous to the possessor, on account of the many snares and temptations which they afford to vicious indulgence: while a more humble station of life furnishes an asylum for virtue, and is often enriched with the enjoyment of a greater degree of repose and self-approbation. We have repeatedly had occasion to introduce this author to the notice of our readers; and therefore we shall only observe that the present production is diversified with several agreeable and amusing scenes; and although it occasionally descends too low in the picture which it furnishes of unpolished life, and is sometimes less correct than might be wished in point of language, yet on the whole it will be read with pleasure and approbation. The history of Sir Giles Geffreys, in the 4th volume, is irrelevant with regard to the main story: but there are few readers who will not enjoy a laugh at the description of that worthy knight's character. Man.

Art. 24. *St. Clair of the Isles;* or the Outlaws of Barra, a Scottish Tradition. By Elizabeth Helme. 12mo. 4 Vols. 14s. Boards Longman and Co.

In the reign of James I. of Scotland, towards the middle of the 15th century, the events recorded in these volumes are supposed to have taken place. St. Clair, and a party of his companions, are, by the cruel and unjust artifices of their relentless persecutors, rendered outlaws, and banished to the Isle of Barra, one of the Hebrides. After various occurrences during their stay in this place, at the succession of James II interest is made at court in their behalf, and the sentence of outlawry is reversed. They then return to the world, and pass the remainder of their days in the enjoyment of their freedom. The narrative is plain and inoffensive; and in one or two instances the incidents excite attention: but, generally speaking, there is not sufficient animation in the tale to intitle it to a rank above that of mediocrity in this class of productions. D.o

Art. 25. *Letters of Miss Riversdale.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

The heroine of this novel resides with her widowed mother, Lady Riversdale, at Geneva; and her brother, Sir Henry, is a very accomplished gentleman absent on his travels. The separation of this affectionate brother and sister induces the necessity of a punctual correspondence, as a means of alleviating the regrets of that state; and the scene opens with lamentations on this subject. Miss R. tells us that it is her brother's request that four-and-twenty hours may never pass without something being committed to paper; and the request is faithfully fulfilled on the part of Louisa, who, after the manner of other journalists, details every minute event of her life, and every emotion of her heart. As she is very young, and very beautiful, no man of course sees Miss Riversdale without being fascinated: hence ensue lovers

 innumerable;

innumerable; and, as it is the natural consequence of abundance to occasion a perplexity on the subject of choice, we perceive our heroine occasionally fluctuating between two opinions; till at last she decides in favour of Colonel Malcolm, who is such an Othello in jealousy that we tremble lest she should encounter a Desdemona's fate. We are, however, at length relieved from this anxiety by a sudden change of the scene; in which the Colonel retires to the back ground, drops his love and his jealousy, and accommodates his behaviour in a very gentleman-like manner to the imperious necessity of the history, which insists on his marrying Lady Mary Melville, who must have died had he not rescued her by a *coup de bague*. Miss Riversdale, having dissolved this chain, welcomes the return of liberty, and flies from place to place with the velocity of a bird. To-day, she is in London; to-morrow, she is at York; the next day she is in Scotland; and in every place she meets with great variety of characters, which she paints rather too much in the caricature style. They are merely sketches, hastily conceived and hastily executed; and by no means worthy of being classed as pictures of the general habits, manners, or language of the people whom Miss Riversdale describes. In many of the letters, however, we meet with good sense and good sentiments; and the student or proficient in French will be pleased with some parts of the dialogue, and some whole letters, which are written in that elegant language. We think that the story of this work does not excite sufficient interest on the point of incident, to rank in the class of novels; and that it should rather have been intitled, as the editor intimates, "Characters and Sketches of Manners." Mrs Moy.

Art. 26. *A Tale without a Title: give it what you please.* By Eugenia de Acton. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. Boards. Lane and Co. 1804.

Various changes of fortune in the life of Lady Laura Warburton, from the first instance of her relation's cruelty in consigning her to a vessel bound for America, to her final establishment in England, and her marriage with Mr. Conyers, excite a considerable portion of interest in the reader of these volumes. We may, however, object to the narrative in point of *probability*, and particularly to that part which relates her subsistence for several nights and days in a wild American forest. The author takes frequent occasion to introduce, in a sprightly and agreeable manner, reflections of a serious nature; and sentiments which, although little congenial with the *spirit of the world*, are, in our opinion, congenial with the spirit of true religion. The reader will question our approbation the less in this particular, when we farther inform him that this author is a disciple of the Reverend Robert Fellowes, whose "Christian Philosophy" and other publications we announced in former Reviews, in terms of high and merited commendation *. It gives us much pleasure to find, on retrospection, that our present opinion of this lady's merits, as a writer, coincides with that which we offered on a former production from the same pen. Mans.

* See Vol. xxxviii. &c.

Art. 27. *Valérie; ou Lettres de Gustave de Linar à Ernest de G—.* 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed. De Boffe, &c. 1804.

The agreeable turn of thought in these letters will furnish a very acceptable entertainment to the true admirers of nature and simplicity; while the local information, which is occasionally interspersed, together with the sentiments and reflections of a refined and well-directed mind, give additional charms to the scenery, and to the many pleasing images which are borrowed from views of nature. The insipidity of enjoyment, and the dissatisfaction, which attend the votaries of fashion, and those who move in the sphere of high life, are here affectingly contrasted with that delight and gladness of heart, which accompany those who seek to purify and refine their affections in the paths of piety, and in the duties of active benevolence. Mans.

Art. 28. *Human Frailties*. Interspersed with Poetry. 12mo. 3 Vols. 9s. sewed. Dutton.

When the frailties of human nature are exhibited to public view, and the characters of those who are lost to a sense of honor and the love of virtue are introduced to the acquaintance of the reader, he is poorly rewarded for the acquaintance which he obtains with such society, unless he is led by the author to draw conclusions in favor of an opposite line of conduct, and by the contraft between vice and virtue is strengthened and established in the esteem of the latter. We do not perceive that this object is sufficiently regarded in the present portrait of Human Frailties; nor is it in other respects intitled to much commendation. We learn, however, in these letters, a new mode of expressing ourselves on certain occasions; for instance: "to be emerged in business," to "extenuate revenge to too high a pitch," &c. &c. Do

Art. 29. *Sherwood Forest*; or Northern Adventures. By Mrs. Villa Real Gooch. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. Boards. Highley. 1804.

No precise period is assigned by the fair author of this tale, for the exact time in which these historical anecdotes may be supposed to have occurred: but, as the dwelling-place of the last inhabitants of a spot in the forest is represented as a perfect ruin at present, we may conclude that their history, and that of others their contemporaries, is of no very modern date. If we are right in this inference, we may be allowed to express our surprise on finding, in the course of this narrative, a regiment going to the West Indies, at the name of Christie as an auctioneer, and that of Dr. Willis as a physician. This history is too much broken and interrupted to form an agreeable whole; and although it contains some pleasing and some affecting passages, its contents have scarcely sufficient interest; while the sentiment is not always correct. To represent an adulterer as deserving *pity* rather than *blame*, (vol. ii. p. 23.) is surely a censurable piece of morality. Such language, we are aware, is too frequently applied to the palliation of vicious conduct: but an author, studious to inculcate virtuous principles, should cautiously avoid the dangerous practice of decking vice with a fair and specious robe. Do

POETRY.

Art. 30. *The Shipwreck*, a Poem, by Wm. Falconer, a Sailor. The Text illustrated by additional Notes, and corrected from the 1st and 2d Editions, with a Life of the Author, by James Stanier Clarke, F.R.S. Vicar of Preston, and Chaplain of the Household of the Prince. 8vo. Royal Paper. 1l. 1s. Boards. Miller. 1804.

We have here a truly elegant edition of a well-known poem, of standard merit, both in a literary point of view, and as descriptive of the scenes which it depicts. The paper, type, and engravings, all deserve great praise; and the editor has taken pains to illustrate the text by many additional notes, from his own pen, and from those of several friends. The life of the author is also an addition for which the public is indebted to the industry and talents of Mr. Clarke.

Falconer's poem was first printed in 1702, and we spoke of it in deservedly high terms in our xxviith vol. p. 197. the major part of which article is copied by the present editor in his biographical memoir. The poet described the miseries of a scene which he had himself witnessed, having been shipwrecked in a Levant trader, of which he was mate, he and two others alone surviving: but this favorite of the Muses was the sport of Fortune, and was reserved only to experience a second disaster, in which he shared the common fate. He sailed from England in 1769, as purser of the Aurora frigate, which was ordered to take Mr. Vansittart and other supervisors to India; and no tidings of the vessel were ever obtained after she quitted the Cape, except the uncertain testimony of a black sailor, who, in 1773, deposed before the East India Directors that he was one of five persons who escaped from the wreck of the ship on the rocks of Mocoa.

This unfortunate poet was the son of poor parents at Edinburgh, and early went to sea: but he was a striking example of the truth of the adage, "*Poeta nascitur, non fit*:" nature had stamped him a son of Apollo; and neither the disadvantages of education, nor the obstacles of a sailor's life, could arrest the efforts of his genius. His situation only gave the theme to his song; and he produced a poem *, which, in the words of Mr. Clarke, 'is of inestimable value to this country, since it contains, within itself, the rudiments of navigation: if not sufficient to form a complete seaman, it may certainly be considered as the grammar of his professional science. I have heard many experienced officers declare that the rules and maxims delivered in this poem, for the conduct of a ship in the most perilous emergency, form the best, and indeed the only opinions which a skilful mariner should adopt. It is a poem, not only eminent for its sublimity and pathos, but for an harmonious poetic assemblage of technical terms, and maxims, used in navigation: which a young sailor may easily commit to memory; and also such scientific principles as will enable him to lay a sound foundation for his future professional skill

* He was also the author of some minor compositions, odes, songs, &c. and Mr. C. is of opinion that he wrote the famous song of "Cease, rude Boreas, blustering railer," usually attributed to G. A. Steevens.

and judgment. We should, therefore, as Britons, respect this poem as the composition of a Naval Sybil.'

In all respects, we can recommend this volume to the notice of our readers: - to the collector of handsome books, to the lover of beautiful poetry, and to the curious in marine scenery, whether as amateurs or as professional men.

G. 2.

RELIGIOUS.

Art 31. *The Sacred Mirror:* or Compendious View of Scripture History, &c. &c. By the Rev. Thomas Smith. 12mo. pp. 300. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co.

A concise and perspicuous view of the Scripture History, in which the principal events and their corresponding dates might be traced in a manner inviting to youth, has been a desideratum among books intended for their use. We are therefore glad to announce this performance, which in many respects is well calculated to supply the defect: but we cannot help regretting that the author should have furnished his compilation with such dogmas of divines, as will prove a bar to its becoming a book of general utility. What advantage could the pious author suppose the youthful reader to derive from being told that *the Trinity* created the world, or from seeing that doctrine *proved* from the circumstances of our Saviour's baptism?—a proof, we must allow, as *subtle* as the truest schoolmen can desire.

'This was the clearest demonstration ever given to mortals of the existence of the HOLY TRINITY; for though we are told that God (the Father) is a consuming fire, and that none can see him and live; yet upon this solemn occasion, the voice of that God issued from the clouds of heaven whilst his co-equal son stood by the side of the Baptist, and the Holy Ghost rested visibly upon him, as a confirmation of his Divine nature and mission.'

How much better would it have been, had the author been contented with the simple statement of the Scriptures, and had he forborne to inculcate for doctrines and commandments the *glosses* and *deductions* of men!

If Mr. Smith might be induced to expunge these intricacies in a future edition, his Mirror would become a valuable school-book for youth of all parties and denominations.

Man.

Art. 32. *A Letter to a Parishioner*, upon some particular Questions respecting Tithes. With a Postscript containing different Texts of Scripture in Proof of the Arguments adduced in the Letter. 8vo. 1s. Law.

This letter writer's arguments deduced from Abraham's paying tithes to the king of Salem, or from the arrangements for the support of the tribe of Levi, can have no respect whatever to the Church of Christ under the Gospel, since neither our Lord nor his Apostles have given any directions for following the Levitical ordonnance in providing for the Christian priesthood. The principle, that they who preach the Gospel ought to live by it, does not tend to fix any particular mode of support. We consider, therefore, this Gentleman's attempts to establish the divine right of tithes as very impotent, and

his

his assertion that they who diminish the value of the *nine*-tenths to injure the Ministers *one*-tenth, 'are *guilty of sacrilege* towards God,' as very indiscreet. In these times, men are not thus to be frightened and silenced. Mo-y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *Verulamiana; or Opinions on Men, Manners, Literature, Politics, and Theology.* By Francis Bacon, Baron of Verulam, &c. &c. To which is prefixed a Life of the Author, by the Editor. 12mo. pp. 350. 4s. 6d. Boards. Dutton. 1803.

The present collection, from an author who abounds in wise sentences and apophthegms, is judiciously made; and with the following observation on prerogative and law we were much pleased;

'The king's prerogative and the law are not two things; but the king's prerogative is law, and the principal part of the law, the first-born or *pars prima* of the law: and therefore in conserving or maintaining that, we can serve and maintain the law. There is not in the body of man one law of the head, and another of the body, but all is one entire law.'

It should be recollected that these sentiments were written in the reign of Queen Elizabeth or of king James; and that the opinion on the subject of prerogative at that period, as to its limits and boundaries, would naturally differ from that which is entertained in the present day:—but whether circumscribed or extended, prerogative is law, and as such is intitled to protection and regard.

The Life contains interesting facts and reflections, which indicate a mind accustomed to extend its inquiries beyond the surface. We quote a remark in confirmation of this opinion:

'He (Lord Bacon) had made deep observations on human nature; but it may be doubted whether this knowledge contributed to his interests. Like most who have perplexed themselves with investigations of this description, he often imagined more cunning than actually existed, and was not unfrequently employed in combating the phantoms of his own creation. It is the error of men long accustomed to the machinations of the world, to believe that all is insincerity, vexation, and vanity; and generally to gather the bitter fruits of their belief. Lord Bacon thought dissimulation in some cases so indispensible, and even justifiable, that he carried it to an extent highly injurious to himself. There is reason for concluding that his extreme love of letters was in a great degree affected, in order to cover his ambition as a politician, by indicating an opinion of his real indifference to public employment: yet his enemies successfully retorted, on this very ground, representing him as a man of learning, rather than business, and therefore unfitted for those situations to which he secretly aspired.'

The readers of this little volume will be rewarded for the attention which they bestow on its contents. S.R.

Art. 34. *The Man in the Moon;* consisting of Essays and Critiques on the Politics, Morals, Manners, Drama, &c. of the present Day. 8vo. pp. 194. 4s. sewed. Highley. 1804.

This is an attempt at periodical essay-writing,—the peculiar province

vince of minds of the highest culture,—the field in which genius, wit, humour, are usually seen to adorn the fruits of various reading, and of polished converse. The author before us is not duly possessed of the pretensions of this order; nature did not intend him, nor do his attainments qualify him, for occupying this high literary ground. If however his lucubrations do not add to the stock of information, nor refine the taste, neither are they chargeable with any vicious or injurious tendency; and the sentiments inculcated are those of a virtuous, patriotic, and tolerant mind. No abstruse nor delicate subjects are discussed: but the essayist wisely confines himself to such as are within the grasp of ordinary strength; and many of his remarks are deserving of attention. Jo.

Art. 35. *Journal of a short Excursion among the Swiss Landscapes;* made in the Summer of the Year Ninety-four. 12mo. pp. 132. Murray. 1803.

It must be admitted that this writer possesses a mind sensible to natural beauty, and that he sketches in a lively and happy manner the scenes which gave him pleasure. Lovers of such descriptions in writing will be pleased therefore with the repast which is here prepared for them, though not served in the highest style. One track not often trodden by Swiss tourists, because it is open only to pedestrians, was followed by this traveller; it it that which leads from Meyringen to Lucerne, through the canton of Underwalden. The scenery which here meets the eye almost warrants the strong language in which this author speaks of it, when he says, 'All that can be found in nature, poetry, or dreams, the canton of Underwald shewed us this day.' Swiss scenes, however, will in future not administer to British bosoms the pleasures which they were wont to communicate, viz. those which arose from regarding them as the residence of an independent and high-spirited people. The chief beauty of the landscape has faded, and the charm which constituted its highest interest has vanished.

That the Valaisannes had no existence but in the imagination of Rousseau, can hardly be a discovery to any of the readers of his fascinating romance. Jo.

Art. 36. *An Essay on the Art of ingeniously Tormenting;* with proper Rules for the Exercise of that amusing Study. Humbly addressed Part I. to the Master, Husband, &c. Part II. to the Wife, Friend, &c. With some general Instructions for plaguing all your Acquaintance. Cr. 8vo. pp. 229. 6s. Boards. Miller. 1804.

This successful effort at ironical instruction was first published in 1753, and was adequately noticed in our viiith vol. p. 274. The present editor is the Rev. J S. Clarke, who ascribes the production to Miss Jane Collier, eldest sister of Dr. Collier of the Commons, the intimate friend of the celebrated Fielding and his sister Sarah. Few biographical particulars of this lady have come to the editor's knowlege: but he adds that she enjoyed the friendship and confidence of Richardson; and that she and her friend Miss S. Fielding were excellent Greek and Latin scholars. The work is handsomely printed. G.2.

Art.

Art. 37. *The Confessions of J. Lackington*, late Bookseller, at the Temple of the Muses, in a Series of Letters to a Friend. To which are added, Two Letters on the bad Consequences of having Daughters educated at Boarding-Schools. 12mo pp. 212. 2s. Boards. Jordan and Maxwell.

How far Mr. Lackington will accomplish his wish of "making a holiday in Heaven," we presume not to decide, but we may venture to assure him that he will be a source of mirth on this globe. Whitfield was accustomed to say to his hearers, "Come to Christ, the dirtier the better," and the subscribers to this doctrine must regard Mr. Lackington as a most precious child of Grace: for no pious old maiden could be more energetic in pronouncing herself "the vilest of sinners," than this modern Confessor,—or perhaps would be more offended if taken at her word. Has Mr. L. been ambitious of resembling the character which Pope gives of Lord Wharton:

> "Then turns repentant, and his God adores
> With the same spirit that he drinks and w——s?"

Let him be flattered by this comparison, and take it in lieu of all other compliments: for our opinion is, that true repentance is modest and unostentatious; and that the judicious among the Methodists will not be much delighted with this sort of Confessions. Mr. L. would persuade us that he formerly kept very bad company, a fact which we are not disposed to controvert: but we cannot give him credit when he asserts that his *enlightened* friend Dick Thrifty 'doubted of his own existence.' Even in the very Temple of the Muses, we question the possibility of finding a doubter who doubted whether his doubting-self existed.

The liberty which Mr. L. takes with himself should not be extended to his acquaintance; who, even under feigned names, cannot be pleased with the portrait which their friend has drawn of them. We will not say that he who writes a long account of his repentance sets down more than is true: but we must tell Mr. Lackington that he will be in high luck if he finds people who will implicitly credit all that he has written. Since he has interlarded his work with many quotations from the poets, we shall call it a *poetical* confession; by which we do not mean to question the fact of his being sincerely concerned for having ridiculed the Methodists; though we are of opinion that the ostentation and vain display, which are made by the Confessor, can be little to the credit of his christian humility. On such good terms is he now with himself, and so satisfied of the force of his arguments, that he wishes to compare himself to St. Paul, and expects that his correspondent should say to him, 'Almost thou persuadest me to be a Methodist.' He confesses that, if it had not been for methodistic preaching, 'he should now have been a poor, ragged, dirty cobler, peeping out from under a bulk with a snuffy nose and a long beard;' and to poor snuffy nosed coblers this hint may be of use in persuading them to be methodists, since thus they may get something better than "a stall which serves them for kitchen and parlour and all." If Mr. L. was formerly severe on the Methodists, he endeavours now to make them amends; and their preachers owe him their lowest bow for his compliments.

The

The letters on Boarding Schools are intended to reprobate this mode of education as productive of vice, and as disqualifying females for the state of matrimony. It is very true that the system of boarding school education is on too high a level to adapt females for the duties of ordinary life.

Mo.y.

Art. 32. *The Farmer's and Gardener's Directory*, containing the most approved Rules and Directions for fotetelling the Changes which take place in the Weather; with Observations on the Barometer, Thermometer, Hygrometer, and Rain-Gauge. 12mo. pp. 48. 1s. Scatchard.

In our variable climate, it is of great importance to be *weather-wise*, or to be acquainted with those prognostics which indicate the changes of the atmosphere. To the agriculturist, this knowlege is peculiarly valuable; and he is obliged to the author of this little unostentatious manual, for the hints which it contains;—hints which, in general, display attentive observation and philosophic reading. This Directory contains, Signs from Animals, &c. Signs from Vapours, Clouds, &c. all indicating a change of weather. Signs of wet and dry Seasons. The influence of the Moon on the weather. Signs from the Barometer, Hygrometer, &c.

All the remarks here suggested are not of equal value: but, as the piece is small, the purchase of this tract may be a shilling well laid out by those who are much concerned in the state of the weather, and who may bring its rules to the test of experience. The editor observes that

'When the *Swallows* fly high after their prey, we think ourselves sure of a serene sky; but when they fly low and brush the surface of the water with their wings, we judge that rain is not far off.'

'When the *Gnats* collect themselves, before the setting of the sun, and form a sort of vortex, in the shape of a column, it announces fine weather.'

'The *Earth*, after very long and abundant rain, is sometimes seen to be almost dry, and the *Roads* quite free from dirt. This is a sign, that the rain has not altogether ceased; and denotes a continual efflux of electric matter, which, being renewed, carries with it, in the form of vapour, all the moisture that falls on the earth.

'There is sometimes a great deal of *dirt* after a very moderate rain: this is a sign of fine weather; because it indicates that evaporation has ceased.'

'There is no surer sign of rain, than two different *Currents of Clouds*, especially if the under-current flies fast before the wind. And if two such currents appear in hot weather, they shew, that a thunder storm is gathering.'

On wet and dry seasons, the following rules are laid down:

'A *Day* is accounted *Wet*, when rain falls to the amount of one pound troy, on the space of a square foot. A *Week*, when it contains four or more wet days. A *Month*, when it contains three wet weeks. And a *Season*, or *Quarter of a Year*, when it contains two wet months.

'When there has been no storm, before or after the *Vernal Equinox*, the ensuing summer is generally *Dry*, at least five times in six.

'When

'When a storm happens from the east, either on the 19th, 20th, or 21st of March, the succeeding summer is *Dry*, four times in five.

'When a Storm arises on the 25th, 26th, or 27th of March, and not before, in any point, the succeeding summer is generally *Dry*, four times in five.

'If there should be a Storm at south-west, or west south west, on the 19th, 20th, 21st, or 22d, the succeeding summer is generally *Wet*, five times in six.

'It rains less in March than in November in the proportion of seven to twelve.

'It generally rains less in April than in October, in the proportion of one to two. And less in May than in September, in the proportion of three to four.

'When it rains plentifully in May, it generally rains but little in September; and the contrary.

'Out of forty-one years, there will in general be twenty-two dry *Springs*, six wet, and thirteen variable ones; also twenty wet *Summers*, sixteen dry, and five variable ones; and probably eleven dry *Autumns*, eleven wet, and nineteen variable ones.

'The quantity of rain which falls in nine successive years is nearly equal to that which falls in the next following nine. And every nineteenth year is generally similar.—This similarity was very striking between the temperature of the years 1701, 1720, 1739, 1758 and 1777.'

Gentlemen, also, who have Barometers, may be thankful for the instruction which is here offered for using that instrument. Mo.y.

Art. 39. *The Intruder:* a periodical Paper. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Boards. Printed at Aberdeen.

We have perused this little volume with a considerable degree of pleasure and approbation. Although some of its papers are particularly calculated for the meridian of Aberdeen, from the local observations on customs and manners, which they contain; yet there are others which furnish useful reflections and rational entertainment, worthy the attention of the inhabitants even of this southern and enlightened metropolis. If we may make any exception to this statement, it is with regard to the paper 'on Vanity.'

'Without becoming the incautious advocate of many vain-glorious fools, who claim more respect than the world is willing to allow them, and disclaiming all intention of usurping the dominion of modesty, I must humbly assert the rights and privileges to which I think vanity is entitled, and endeavour to undeceive the learned, with respect to a celebrated ancient orator, whose merit has been depreciated with the accusation of insufferable vanity. I have before alluded to the ease with which an author can commit his own praise to paper; and as my observation has been very extensive, I have seen with surprise many persons of that description, summoning their whole resolution, to support an ordinary conversation on the state of the weather, births, deaths, marriages, &c. when all their efforts with much blushing and stammering, could produce little beyond the sound of an occasional monosyllable. But this awkwardness is not alone chargeable against them; for there are others, and men of good sense too, whom I have seen equally perplexed and as easily put out of countenance, on the most common occasions.

casions. They cannot walk into a room where there is any company, make a bow, or answer to an inquiry respecting their health, without rendering their uneasiness and embarrassment evident to every one present; and sometimes, not without throwing their bodies into such violent distortions, that an observer might think they were going to expire. But this is not all; to have any tolerable idea of their behaviour, you must figure to yourself, the innumerable mistakes and foolish blunders, which they who labour under this awkward diffidence fall into; and you must suppose, every one pretending to compassionate the poor creatures, yet ready on all occasions, to laugh at their distress.

'In company with their equals they assume some more composure, and perhaps behave with a good deal of propriety; but, in presence of every stranger, and more particularly of their superiors, all their courage fails them, and they sink into the most abject state of awkward insignificance. Now, what I affirm is, that a little vanity would cure them of all this; or at least, prove by degrees an excellent means of correcting bashfulness, and finally of giving an entire new turn to the manners, not only favourable to happiness, but also essential to true dignity of character. For, while a man continues so awkwardly diffident as I have before represented, he will never secure that esteem and regard, which he will have the mortification to see bestowed, almost exclusively, on those whose carriage is easy and unconstrained, whose manners are dignified and respectful. A man that is not at ease with himself, will seldom appear unembarrassed in company; that openness of behaviour and freedom of conversation which delight every body else, will soon become irksome and tedious to him, whose anxiety and impatience are habitual from distrust in himself. How much do I admire that manliness of thought, which begets in us the consciousness of our own importance! We ought to carry it along with us through every situation of life; because accompanied with occasional pliability and tempered with moderation, it will form our best security against the arrogance of the great, and the general artifices of the world.'

The author should have *defined* the term Vanity, before he recommended it as a *virtuous* quality, and then perhaps he might have coincided with the author of No. 373. in the Spectator, where the happy mixture of modesty and assurance is recommended; and surely with more propriety than vanity can be, which is generally understood to be a *weakness*, and the property of a man who over-rates his merits.—We rather think that this correspondent really means a *just and manly confidence*; which undoubtedly every one should attempt to attain, by conscious rectitude and the sedulous exertion of his talents. In the mean time, we shall only add on this subject that the moralist ought carefully to guard against such a *misapplication of terms* as may tend to weaken the distinctions between virtue and vice, and to break down the wall of separation between the path of wisdom and that of folly. The ensuing extract, from a correspondent's letter on the subject of candour, will shew that such distinctions and proper discriminations between good and evil qualities of the mind are not always neglected in this volume.

'What a pity, that human beings, born in a christian land, endowed with reason, or possessed of the least spark of fellow-feeling, should be so insensible to the dictates of humanity, and so void of

that

that natural philanthropy which pervades even the breast of the wildest savage, as to feel a pleasure in displeasing others, traducing their reputations, wounding their dearest interests, and producing discord and dissention between husband and wife, father and son, between man and man. What advantage can they derive, what good can they expect from such wicked endeavours?

'Who steals my purse, steals trash; 'tis something, nothing;
'Twas mine, 'tis his, and has been slave to thousands;
But he, that filches from me my good name,
Robs me of that, which not enriches him,
And makes me poor indeed!'

'On the contrary, how amiable is that character which is endowed with candour and charity towards all men. Liberality of sentiment is an essential, a distinguishing ingredient in the character of a worthy or great mind; open and cheerful in itself, it diffuses cheerfulness and good humour over all who are under its influence; it forms the ground of mutual confidence and union among men, and prevents those animosities from arising, which are the offspring of groundless prejudice. In the magistrate, it tempers justice with lenity; among subjects, it promotes good order, social virtue, and the most friendly intercourse. But it may be necessary to distinguish between this amiable virtue, and that unreal candour, with which the man of the world endeavours to deceive. To view all the actions of men with the same degree of satisfaction is inconsistent with common sense, and contrary to the express precepts of morality. Were we to think and speak equally well of all, we must either be insensible to the difference between right and wrong, or indifferent to that distinction when we perceive it. This virtue does not really consist in that guarded inoffensive language, which some men pour out in the sweetest accents, and with the most lovely countenances, on every character good or bad; nor is it really to be found in those who can publicly approve of, and with the greatest seeming sincerity defend, the conduct of those who may or may not merit their commendation. Envy can put on the mask of hypocrisy, and act the part of candour; and could we penetrate into the hidden movements of the mind, we should discover that the hypocrite secretly hates and despises the man whom he has publicly commended.'

The concluding paper addresses with awe and reverence the dread tribunal of critics and reviewers: but yet with that *manly confidence* which becomes an independent and virtuous author.

Man's

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 40. Preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey Church of Westminster, May 25, 1804, being the Day appointed by His Majesty's Royal Proclamation to be observed as a Day of solemn Fasting and Humiliation. By George Isaac Huntingford, D.D. F.R.S., Bishop of Gloucester. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

It is justly remarked by this learned preacher, that 'Christianity pre-supposes its followers to be members of civil community, and to them, considered in that capacity, applies many of its precepts.' Though the mass or aggregate of political duties is not particularly specified in the N. T. under the term Patriotism, the several direc-

tions which it gives respecting our social conduct, if attentively followed, cannot fail of consummating the character of the Patriot. The spirit of the Gospel is generous Benevolence, in opposition to mean Selfishness. Hence Dr. H. taking for his text 1 Cor. x. 24. exhorts his hearers to the noblest exercise of the social virtues, and explains the several occasions on which the Christian will sacrifice private to public good. 'Patriotism,' he remarks, 'will prefer the safety of our country to improper considerations of increasing riches; to improper considerations of ease and indolence; to improper love of power and dominion; to improper gratification of self will; and finally will display its regard for the welfare of the community by inducing every person who is actuated by its spirit, to set a good example of attention to religious duties, and of practice in moral virtues.' Few persons can be conspicuously active on the great theatre of politics: but 'in religion and morals, we can all be patriots;' and the Bishop exhorts his hearers to give this proof of love to their country, if they wish that their prayers for the safety of the empire may prevail. He briefly commemorates the valour of those British worthies who have fought for their native land, and whose ashes are enshrined in the sacred edifice in which his audience was assembled; to awaken pious gratitude, he adverts to past national deliverances; and he reminds us of the particular blessing of Providence, in girding us with the strength of the ocean, μεγα σθενος ωκεανοιο. Mo-y.

Art. 41. *In Behalf of those useful and benevolent Institutions* called Friendly Societies, preached at Navestock, Essex, by John Filkes, B.D., Vicar. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1802.

Very appropriate to the design, plain, sensible, and useful. These Societies are recommended to attention, by considering that, by such an establishment, 'the burdens of our fellow creatures are lightened, their morals are influenced and amended; and formed on a Christian principle, they are conducive in a singular manner to Christian piety.'

The author observes, in a short preface, 'I should not have committed this sermon to the press, had I not been anxious to put a discourse on this subject into the hands of my parishioners; and for such a discourse, my inquiry at the book-seller's was always fruitless.'—Mr. Filkes's publication appears to be very seasonable; and we are sorry that it has been so late in receiving our notice and approbation. Hi.

CORRESPONDENCE.

'A Constant Reader,' at Lestwithiel, is certainly right in his philological remark; and we shall endeavour to enforce his suggestion.

The Editor of Boccaccio is informed that his work is under consideration.

'A Constant Reader,' whose letter bears the Norwich post mark, has our thanks for his obliging communication.

To J. M—d,—A. O.—&c. we have only to say, "*there is a time for all things.*"

Errors p. 140. p. 199.